This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M, DCCC, IX.

With an APPENDIX.

Αγαθη γη πεφυκεν, αλλ' αμεληθεισα χερσευεται και ὁσῳ τη Φυσει βελτιων εστι, τοσῳδῳ μαλλον εξαργηθεισα δι' ὀμιλιαν εξαπολλυται. Αλλ' εστι τις αποκρατος και τραχυτερα της διαιτης; αλλα γεωργηθεισα παραυτικα γενναιως καρπους εξηνεγκε.

PLUTARCH.

VOLUME IX.

ASTOR LIBRARY
NEW-YORK

LONDON:

Sold by BECKET and PORTER, Booksellers, in Pall Mall.

M, DCCC, IX.

Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

AIKIN's Dictionary of Chemistry, &c. Page 147
Allan on Lithotomy, 306
Amusement, Poetic, 323
Amphlett's Ned Bentley, 94
Army, British, in Spain, Account of the Operations of, 69. 327
Arnds's Spirit of the Times, translated, 108
Austin's Chironomie, 143

B

Baily's Doctrine of Interest, 410
Bakewell's Observations on Wool, 381
Bampton Lectures for 1807, 371
——— ——— for 1808, 376
Barrister, two Letters to, 330
Bath. See *Cochrane*, See *Kentish*.
Battle of the Blocks, 435
Beck's Poetic Amusement, 323
Belfour's Spanish Heroism, a Poem, 234
Belsham's Jubilee Sermon, 335
Biblical Criticism, Institutes of, 283
Blackheath, &c. Poems, 34
Bolingbroke, Lord, Letters of, 449
Booker's Jubilee Discourse, 447
Bostock on Pharmaceutical Nomenclature, 304
Bowles's Poems, 432
Bradley's Jubilee Sermon, 448
Bransby's Family Sermons, 330
Brey, Chev. de, Travels in the Tyrol, 478
Brighton, a Poem, 104
British Loyalty, 324

Brooke's History of St. Helena, 29
Browne's (Miss) Poems, 323
Bruce, James, Account of, 385
Buenos Ayres, History of, 85
Burgher, See *Examination*.
Burns, Robert, Reliques of, 399
Burt's Narrative of Proceedings on board the Thetis, 430
Butler's Chronological and Biographical Exercises, 446

C

Caledonia, Vol. I. 168
Caledonian Sketches, 12
Camilla de Florian, 432
Capillary-Action, See *La Place*.
Card on the Reign of Charlemagne, 184
Carr's (Sir J.) Caledonian Sketches, 12
Cattle, Facts on feeding Cattle with, 222
Chalmers's Caledonia, Vol. I. 168
Character, Sketches of, 210
Charlemagne, Essay on the Reign of, 184
Chemistry, and Mineralogy, Dictionary of, 147
Cheyne on *Hydrocephalus acutus*, 131
Chironomia, Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery, 243
Clarke's *Naufragia*, 219
——, Mrs. Solemn Epistles to, 436
Clinton's (Gen.) Remarks on British Operations in Spain, 327
——, See *Observations*.
Clouts's Jubilee Sermon, 447
Cochrane on the Vapour-bath, 431
Colin in Search of a Husband, 212
Comber on National Subscriptions, 60
Considerations on the State of the Stage, 325
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112, 224, 336, 448.
Costello's (Mrs.) Soldier's Orphan, 96
Cottage of the War, 97
Cottagers of Glenburnie, 217
Cottin's (Mad.) Theodore and Blanche, 98
Cotton-plant, Treatise on, 494
Covent-Garden-Theatre, Tracts on the Dispute at, 325
Cowper, Selections from, 222
Cromek's Reliques of Burns, 399
Crosby's Merchant's Pocket Dictionary, 446
Cruise, a Poetical Sketch, 212
Crusades, on the Influence of, 466

D

D'Avaray's Libel, Refutation of, 166
Debt, National, Observations on, 442
Debtor and Creditor Laws, Treatise on, 204
Deffand, Mad. du, Correspondence of, 487
Dictionary, See *Aikin*. See *Nedier*.
Discourses on the Progress of Science, &c. 521
Divine Legation, Essay on, 104
Drummond's Two Discourses, 106
—— 's (W. H.) Translation of Lucretius, 413

E

Ecclesiastical Topography, 109
Education, Theory of, 515
——, See *Fox*.
Eliot's Demonstration, 440
Espinasse, Mademoiselle de l', Letters of, 487
Essays and Thoughts by Bp. Horne, 444
Eton's Materials for a History of the Maltese, 394
Evance's (Miss) Poems, 216
Evans's Jubilee Sermon, 448
Evil, Origin of, Discourses on, 106
Examination of Sir F. Burdett's Plan of Reform, 207
Exercises, Chronological and Biographical, 446

F

Facts and Experiments on feeding Cattle with Sugar, 222
Fall of Portugal, a Tragedy, 320
Fantoccini, or public Puppet-shew, 434
Farm-house, a Tale, 333
Fell's Memoirs of C. J. Fox, 42
Financial Remarks, 440
Fleeting, a Poem, 320
Fox, C. J. Memoirs of, 42
——, ——, Characters of, 225
——, Joseph, on Bell's and Lancaster's Systems of Education, 2d Edition, 332
François, M., his Edition of the Duke de Nivernois's Works, 508
Frank—Acta Instituti Clinici Cas. Univ. Vilnensis, 497
Fraser's (Mrs.) Camilla de Florian, 432

G

Gacon-Dufour, Mad., her Travellers in Persia, 544
Gerard's Institutes of Biblical Criticism, 283
Gilpin's Memoirs of Captain Rogers, 430
Gourlay's Letter to Lord Kellie, 219
Grammar, English, 439
Granger, Mr., Letters to and from, 292
———, his Biographical History continued, 297
Green's Miscellaneous Poetry, 215
Grenada, Moors of, History of, 515
Grimoard's Letters of Lord Bolingbroke, 440
Guiscard, a Romance, 98

H

Hamilton's (Miss) Cottagers of Glenburnie, 217
———'s (Mr.) Parliamentary Logic, 346
Harrod's History of Market-Harborough, 443
Harwood's History of Litchfield, 423
Haslam's Observations on Insanity, 2d Edition, 276
Hayley's Life of Romney, 337
Heeren on the Influence of the Crusades, 466
Henderson on the Yellow Fever, 205
Herbart's Theory of Education, 515
Hersee's Poems, 322
Hewlett's Jubilee Sermon, 335
Historical Account of Lancaster, 443
History, See *Sané*, *Tondot*, *Brooke*, *Wilcocke*, *Granger*, *Eton*, *Harwood*, *Lyte*, *Harrod*.
Hodgkins's Mercantile Letters, 216
Houstein's Sir Owen Glendower, 95
Horæ Ionicæ, 98
Horne, Bp., his Essays and Thoughts, 444
Horticultural Society, Transactions of, 266
Hurd, Bp., Letters between him and Bp. Warburton, 1
Husband and Lover, 95
Hydrocephalus acutus, Essay on, 131

I and J

Jackson's Account of Morocco, 187
Jersey, History of, 443
Insanity, Observations on, 276
Interest and Annuities, Doctrine of, 410
———, Essay on, 504
Jones's Historical View of all Nations, 537
Jubilee, or John Bull in his Dotage, 338
———, Sermons on the, 335. 447. 448
Justice and Generosity, &c. 325

K

Kellie, Lord, Letter to, 219
Kenneth and Fenella, 318
Kenrick's Essay on Bath, 281
Kerr's Edition of Discourses on the Progress of Science, &c. 521
King's *Munimenta Antiqua*, Vol. IV. 254
Kirwan's Logic, 449

L

Labedoyère on the Influence of a great Revolution, 474
Lacey's Farm-House, 449
La Fontaine — *les Querelles de Famille*, 211
Lancaster, Historical Account of, 443
La Place's Supplement on Capillary Action, 526
— ——'s Do. to Book III. of the Celestial Mechanics, 529
Lasteyrie on the Cotton-Plant, 494
Leicestershire Tales, 56
Le Mesurier's Bampton Lectures, 391
Letters from an eminent Prelate, 1
——— on the Affairs of Spain, 307
——— of the Swedish Court, 218
——— of a Peruvian Princess, translated, 221
——— from Portugal and Spain, 313
———, two, to a Barrister, 330
Linwood, Miss, Leicestershire Tales, 96
Litchfield, history of, 423
Lithotomy, Treatise on, 206
Liver, Inflammation of, Treatise on, 200
Livery of London, Letter to, 21
Lloyd's Brighton, a Poem, 101
Logic, Essay on, 417
London, Views of, 445
Lucretius, Book I. translated, 433
Lyte's Sketches of the History of Jersey, 442

Malcolm's

M

Malcolm's Letters to and from Mr. Granger, 292
Malta, People of, Materials for their History, 394
Market-Harborough, History of, 443
Marmion travestied, 438
Marocco, Account of, 187
Matilda Montford, 97
Matthews's Naval Triumph, a Poem, 214
Mécanique Céleste, Supplement to, 529
Medea to Jason, 319
Memoirs of Count Puisaye, Vol. VI. 160
Mercantile Letters, 216
Merchant's Pocket Dictionary, 446
Meyer on Interest on Money, 504
Minchin on the Debtor and Creditor Laws, 204
Mineralogy, Dictionary of, 147
Modern Proselytism, 430
Money, See *Interest*.
Moore's Narrative of Sir J. Moore's Campaign, 69
——, See *Clinton*, See *Observations*.
Moors of Grenada, History of, 535
Moser's British Loyalty, 324
Mulford's Translation of Letters of a Peruvian Princess, 221
Muniments Antiqua, Vol. IV. 254
Murray's Account of Bruce, 385

N

National Jubilee, a Sermon, 335
Naval Triumph, a Poem, 214
—— Hero, Young, 319
Nenfragia, 219
Ned Bantlet, 94
Nightingale's Two Sermons, 106
Nivernois, Duke de, his Posthumous Works, 508
Noble's Blackheath, and other Poems, 34
——'s (Rev. M.) Continuation of Granger's Biographical History, 297
Nodier's Dictionary of Words formed by Onomatopœa, 483

O

Observations on the Movements of the Army in Spain, 328
——— on the National Debt, 441
Oliver's English Grammar, 496
Onomatopœa, Words formed by, Dictionary of, 483
Oulton's Traveller's Guide, 221

P

Paley's Sermons, 52
Palmer's Sermon, 111
Palmerin of England, 157
Panthea, Queen of Susia, 328
Parliamentary Logic, 346
Parr's Characters of Fox, 225
Parties, Remarks on the State of, 442
Pearson's Essay on Warburton's Divine Legation, 104
Penrose's Bampton Lectures, 376
Peretti's Tales of the Hermitage, 216
Peruvian Princess, Letters of, 221
Pharmaceutical Nomenclature, Remarks on, 304
Phillips's (Sir R.) Letter to the Livery, 21
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Part I. for 1809 350
Pieces in Verse, 215
Pindar, Peter, Solemn Epistles to Mrs. Clarke, 436
Poems, See *Noble*, *Wright*, *Lloyd*, *Matthews*, *Green*, *Ewance*, *Balfour*, *Ware*, *Swart*, *Hersee*, *Whalley*, *Browne*, *Beck*, *Bowles*, *Wood*.
Poetry, Miscellaneous, 215
Porter's (Sir R.) Letters from Portugal and Spain, 313
Portugal and Spain, Letters from, 313
———, Fall of, 320
Powers, Treatise on, 205
Primitiæ, 220
Principles and Conduct of the War, 442
Puisaye, Count, Memoirs of, Vol. VI. 160
———'s Refutation of D'Avaray's Libel, 168

Q

Quarelles de Famille, 211
Quid nunc? Selections from Cowper, &c. 222

R

Rebecca, a Novel, 96
Rees's Practical Sermons, 228
Reform, See *Examination*.
Refutation of D'Avaray's Libel, 168
Reliques of Burns, 399

Remarks

Remarks on the State of Parties, 442
Revolution, on the Influence of, 474
Rhetorical Delivery, Treatise on, 243
Rogers, Captain, Memoirs of, 430
Romney, G., Life of, 337
Ronald, a Legendary Tale, 215
Rowe's Scintilla Juris, 203
Royal Society, Transactions of, Part I. 1809, 350
Rudigar the Dane, a Tale, 433

S

Saint Domingo, Travels in, 532
Saint Helena, History of, 29
Sané's History of the Moors of Grenada, 535
Sceptic, a Satire, 103
Science, Progress of, Discourses on, 521
Scintilla Juris, 203
Selections from Cowper, &c. 222
Select Views of London, 445
Senses, an Ode, 215
Sermons, See *Paley*, *Drummond*, *Nightingale*, *Rees*, *Bransby*, *Turner*, *Le Mesurier*, *Penrhos*.
———, Single, 111. 335. 447-448
Shaw's Sermon, 111
——'s (*Dr.*) Zoological Lectures, 113
Short Pieces in Verse, 215
Sir Owen Glendower, 95
Sketches of Character, 210
Smith's Rudigar the Dane, 433
Smart's Selection of Poems, 321
Soldier's Orphan, 96
Sonnets of the 18th Century, 215
Sonthey's Palmerin of England, 157
Spain, Campaign in, Narrative of, 69
——, Letters on the Affairs of, 107
——, Letters from, 313
——, See *Moore*, See *Clinton*, See *Observations*.
Spanish Heroism, a Poem, 234
Spirit of the Times, 108
Stage, Considerations on the State of, 325
Stephens's Speech, 440
Subsistence, National, Inquiry into, 60
Sugar, See *Facts*.
Sugden's Treatise on Powers, 203
Sussex, View of the Agriculture of, 137
Swedish Court, Letters of, 218

T

Tableau historique des Nations, 537
Tales of the Hermitage, 206
Theodore and Blanche, 98
Theseus, Man of War, Narrative of, 430
Thirlwall's Primitiæ, 220
Topography, Ecclesiastical, 109
Transactions of the Horticult. Society, 266
Travels, See *Bray*, See *Semlastre*.
Traveller's Guide, 222
Travellers in Persia, 544
Turner's Two Discourses, 330
Two Letters to a Barrister, 30
Tyrol, Travels in, 478

V

Vapour-Bath, See *Kentish*, See *Cochrane*.
Variety, 220
Vaughan's Narrative of the Siege of Zaragoza, 108
Vere's Guiscard, a Romance, 98
Views of London, 445

W

Wakefield's (Miss) Variety, 220
War, Principles and Conduct of the, 442
Warburton, Bp. his Letters to Bp. Hurd, 6
———, See *Pearson*.
Ware's (Mrs.) Poems, 250
Watkins's Young Naval Hero, 329
Whalley's Kenneth and Fenella, 322
Whitbread's Motion, Speech on, 440
White on Inflammation of the Liver, 109
Wilcocks's History of Buenos Ayres, 85
Wilna, University of, Clinical Reports from, 497
Wood's Poems, 435
Woodburn's Ecclesiastical Topography, 109
Wool, Observations on, 381
Wright's Hora Ionica, 98

Y

Yellow-fever, Suggestions on, 205
Young on the Agriculture of Sussex, 137

Z

Zaragoza, Narrative of the Siege of, 108
Zoological Lectures, 183

ERRATA in Volume LX.

Page 5. l. 3. for 'and hurry,' r. *or of hurry*.
13. l. 11. from bott. take the comma away from the word 'Scotland,' and place it after '*Jedburgh*.'
36. l. 7. for 'broke,' r. '*broken*'
41. l. 26. dele the comma after '*fault*.'
53. l. 8. for 'if,' r. *whether*
60. l. 10. from bott. put a comma after '*nations*.'
95. l. 17. put a comma after '*us*.'
104. l. 17. for 'The,' r. *These*.
147. l. 16. put a comma after '*improvement*.'
156. l. last, take away the comma after '*are*.'
162. l. 32. dele the word '*though*,' before '*it*.'
172. l. 12. for 'no were,' r. *nowhere*.
175. l. 13. for 'after the Picts,' r. *afterward, the Picts*.
222. l. 20. for 'declared,' r. *declares*.
251. l. 16. for Πτερογυλῦφος, read Πτερωγυλῦφος; and line 19. for *μιδου*, r. *μισου*
252. l. 5. dele the comma after '*English*.'
266. the price of Art. VI. should be inserted, 7s. 6d. *each part*.
337. l. 14. for 'characters instead,' r. *character, instead*.
338. l. 17. for 'his,' r. *our*.
346. l. 8. from bottom, for 'view,' r. *views*.
413. l. 18. from bott. for '*parientis*,' r. *parcentis*.
418. l. 21. for '*l'étude*,' r. *l'étude*; and l. 22. dele the comma after '*mathematiques*'
444. l. 4. put a comma after '*road*.'
446 l. 16. from bott. put a comma after '*arrangement*.'

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1809.

ART. I. *Letters from a late eminent Prelate to one of his Friends.* Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 516. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

WARBURTON was certainly in his day a star of magnitude and lustre in the theological hemisphere; and whether he will or will not continue to illuminate the world from age to age, his *light* yet *shines before men* sufficiently to render him, his writings, and his friends, the objects of literary interest. It cannot be denied, then, that these letters from him to Bishop Hurd may be termed the correspondence of '*an Eminent Prelate*;' nor can it be doubted that they will excite a degree of attention which, after having perused them, we do not hesitate to say will be amply gratified. Indeed, persons who are acquainted with the literary history of *Warburton and a Warburtonian* will regard this collection of letters with great curiosity; and the avidity of the public for *vellux morceaux* has already been unequivocally manifested.

These right Reverend correspondents, who may not improperly be termed the clerical *Pylades* and *Orestes*, figure throughout in all the glowing colours of the warmest friendship; and we presume that the surviving prelate, who directed the publication of the letters, derived no inconsiderable gratification from reflecting on the manner in which he should be held up to posterity by the great Warburton. While, however, we make all favourable allowances for what Milton * calls "the last infirmity of noble minds," we cannot refrain from expressing some surprize that the author of "the Address to Dr. Jortin on *the Delicacy of Friendship*," (see "Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian,") who reprobates "the gross indelicacy with

* *A propos* of Milton: we may be allowed to advert in this place to an expression of Warburton respecting our great poet, which is a strong trait of character. Speaking of Lauder's 'silly and knavish book,' he adds; 'however, in one view it does not displease me: it is likely enough *to mortify all the silly adorers of Milton, who deserve to be laughed at.*' (P. 29.)

which some persons usually conduct themselves in the expression of this virtue," and sneers at "the civil things which lettered friends are pleased to say of one another," should so far forget himself as to make a public exposure of all the flattery which is liberally bestowed on him by Dr. Warburton. It is true that the commerce of adulation is fairly carried on, and that Dr. Hurd is not tardy in returning praise for praise. Indeed the shuttle-cock is kept up with equal zeal and dexterity; and as the game is gratifying to their vanity, they contrive to retain it snug to themselves. They cherish the proud belief that the sense, learning, and virtue of the age are for the most part in their possession*; and that all who fancy themselves scholars have nothing to do with their writings but to admire them. Warburton finds none but *dunces* in the world (p. 373); and friend Hurd, not to be behind-hand in discovery, recognizes in this literary hemisphere only *coxcombs*. (p. 377.) They seem to say with the French academician,

"*Nul n'aura de l'esprit que nous et nos amis.*"

Poor Drs. Leland and Jortin, however high their reputation, pass for mere pigmies in literature in the estimation of this *par nobile*; and Hurd, in order to *curry favour* with his great friend, treats them in the most supercilious and sarcastic manner. As we proceed in the correspondence, we perceive in what way this [illegible] to his patron is repaid; and we follow the good fortune [illegible] under Warburtonian auspices, till, from one step of preferment [illegible] another, he arrives at episcopal honours. Yet in the midst of the [illegible]ness which, in one respect, is observable in this intercourse, we notice with pleasure the evidences of a long and uninterrupted friendship; we contemplate the proud Warburton in several amiable points of view; we see him at his ease; we are gratified by the brilliant flashes which proceed from his mind without effort, are amused by its sprightliness, and are convinced that his heart was endued with some excellent social qualities.—As to Hurd, also, it must not be omitted that the warmth of his gratitude, his devotion to letters, his exemplary affection towards his parents, and the unsullied moral virtues of a long life, are properties of character which will ensure the general esteem which they deserve.

* At p. 463. Warburton thus writes to Hurd, 'If you should die, in the present state of things, *darkness* (as the Poet strongly expresses it) *will be the burier of the dead*: there will not be light enough left to see or apprehend our loss.'

Again, P. 114. 'What will not such a capacity and such a pen do, either to shame or to improve a miserable age!'

On

On a blank leaf in the first of five portfolios containing the originals of this collection, the editor made the following entry:

"These letters give so true a picture of the writer's character, and are, besides, so worthy of him in all respects (I mean, if the reader can forgive the playfulness of his wit in some instances, and the partiality of his friendship in many more), that, in honour of his memory, I would have them published after my death, and the profits arising from them applied to the benefit of the Worcester Infirmary.

"January 18th, 1793. R. WORCESTER."

The series commences with a letter from Mr. Warburton to Mr. Hurd, dated Bedford-Row, June 1, 1749, acknowleging the receipt of a copy of Horace's Epistle to the Pisos, which the latter had published with a critical commentary; and it finishes with a letter written by Dr. W., Bishop of Gloucester, June 8. 1776, addressed to Dr. H. then Bishop of Litchfield and Coventry, to be opened and delivered to him after the decease of the writer: in which he solemnly commends Mrs. Warburton to Dr. Hurd's protection, and 'conjures him to afford her his assistance, and to aid her against all persons who may be disposed to injure or *bear hard** upon her.'

It appears, then, that this correspondence occupied the space of 27 years. Three years after the date of the last-mentioned letter, Dr. Warburton died, i. e. June 17, 1779; (see the account of his life by the Bishop of Worcester, M. R. Vol. 16. N. S. p. 322;) and in 1788 a splendid edition of his works in seven quarto volumes (see M. R. Vol. 81. p. 352.) was given to the world by his surviving friend: though, for reasons not explained, the Memoir which was intended to serve as an introduction, and to contain an account of the life, writings, and character of the author, was then withholden, and was not published till 1794. We look in vain for the developement of the mystery which hangs over this affair, in the letters now presented to the curious eye: but, if we find nothing to gratify that keen appetite for scandal which prevails both in the great and the little world, we are furnished with various traits which together form 'a true picture of the writer's mind,' and place his character in a fairer light than that in which he has been generally contemplated. From the strange paradoxes which he maintained, and from the profusion of learning with which he laboured to defend them against the opinion of scholars, some persons have been induced to regard Dr. Warburton as more intent on the display of gigantic abili-

* The meaning of this expression it is not for us to investigate.

ties than as seriously in earnest: but in these letters he uniformly appears as a true believer. In letter 24, dated Prior Park, July 11, 1750, speaking of Dr. Middleton, he says:

'Had he had, I will not say, piety, but greatness of mind enough not to suffer the pretended injuries of some Churchmen to prejudice him against Religion, I should love him living, and honour his memory when dead. But, good God! that man, for the discourtesies done him by his miserable fellow-creatures, should be content to divest himself of the true viaticum, the comfort, the solace, the asylum from all the evils of human life, is perfectly astonishing! I believe no one (all things considered) has suffered more from the low and vile passions of the high and low amongst our brethren than myself. Yet God forbid it should ever suffer me to be cold in the Gospel interests, which are indeed so much my own, that without it I should be disposed to consider humanity as the most forlorn part of the creation.'

At another time, (Letter 47.) he can be playful, and make a ludicrous representation of Noah's Ark:

'Poor Forster (whom I have just received a letter from) is overwhelmed with desolation for the loss of his master. I quoted his case to our friend Balguy for his consolation. But you say—*I will have no master*—which, I confess, is the best consolation of all. Reckon upon it, that Durham goes to some Noble Ecclesiastic. 'Tis a morsel only for them. Our *Grandees* have at last found their way back into the Church. I only wonder they have been so long about it. But be assured that nothing but a new religious revolution, to sweep away the fragments that Henry the VIIIth left, after banqueting his courtiers, will drive them out again. The Church has been of old the cradle and the throne of the younger Nobility. And this nursing mother will, I hope, once more vie with old imperious Berecynthia—

Læta Deûm partu, centum complexa Nepotes,
Omnes Cœlicolas, omnes *supera alta* tenentes.

'You mention Noah's Ark. I have really forgot what I said of it. But I suppose I compared the Church to it, as many a grave Divine has done before me.—The Rabbins make the giant Gog or Magog contemporary with Noah, and convinced by his preaching. So that he was disposed to take the benefit of the Ark. But here lay the distress; it by no means suited his dimensions. Therefore, as he could not enter in, he contented himself to ride upon it astride. And though you must suppose that, in that stormy weather, he was more than half-boots over, he kept his seat, and dismounted safely, when the Ark landed on Mount Ararat. Image now to yourself this illustrious Cavalier mounted on his *hackney*; and see if it does not bring before you the church, bestrid by some lumpish minister of state, who turns and winds it at his pleasure. The only difference is, that Gog believed the preacher of righteousness and religion.

I am, &c.'

Again:

Again:

'*Grosvenor Square, November 29th*, 1760.

'Here I am, in a world of nonsense and hurry, and hurry and nonsense; for one can hardly tell which is the parent, which the offspring; or whether they do not beget one another.'

It would seem, from some passages in these letters, that the sworn clerical brothers were the humblest of beings: but we can always see pride lurking beneath the mask of humility; Warburton, writing from Prior Park, September 24. 1754, says,

'Those who have the noble ambition to make their *regular stages*, must dash through thick and thin; must be soundly bespattered; and, what to an ingenuous mind is as grievous, must as heartily bespatter. But they deserve no pity. What is hard, is that such travellers as you and I, who pick our way, and would ride at our ease; who fear nothing but being *benighted*; and for the rest, can sleep as soundly at the *Thatched-House*, as at the *Mitre Inn*; that we should be bespattered by the busy, dirty, servile rascals, that post by us, and view us with an eye of jealousy if we ride briskly, or with contempt if we saunter, this I say is very provoking. What could make that important blockhead (you know whom) preach against me at St. James's? He never met me at Court, or at Powis or Newcastle-House. And what was it to him whether the Jews had a future life? It might be well for such as him, if the Christians had none neither. Nor, I dare say, does he much trouble himself about the matter, while he stands foremost, amongst you, in the new *Land of promise*; which, however, to the mortification of these modern Jews, is a little distant from that of *performance*.'

Speaking of the writers who combated the *Divine Legation*, he superciliously observes:

'I wanted to see if any of them had hit upon the weak parts, I had been with so much pains providing for. And I can assure you, that not one of them has been yet found out by my enemies; and do yet remain a secret between God, my conscience, and my friends.

'I can safely say, I will shew them two hundred in mine for every single fault my enemies are ever likely to find out.'

In reply to this *bounce*, it may be remarked that if the D.L. were so full of weak parts, it was the author's duty, as a lover of truth, to expose them himself; and not to be so very angry with every person who presumed to draw a quill against him. Elsewhere, we find that nobody *reasons*, except Dr. W.

'You will say, remember the *sovereignty of Reason*. To this I reply, that the common definition of man is false: he is not a *reasoning animal*. The best you can predicate of him is, that he is an *animal capable of reason*, and this too we take upon old tradition. For it has not been my fortune yet to meet, I won't say with any one man, but I may safely swear with any one order of men, who ever

Brooke's History of St. Helena, 29
Browne's (Miss) Poems, 323
Bruce, James, Account of, 385
Buenos Ayres, History of, 85
Burdett, See *Examination*.
Burns, Robert, Reliques of, 399
Burt's Narrative of Proceedings on board the Thetis, 430
Butler's Chronological and Biographical Exercises, 446

C

Caledonia, Vol. I. 168
Caledonian Sketches, 12
Camilla de Florian, 432
Capillary-Action, See *La Place*.
Card on the Reign of Charlemagne, 184
Carr's (Sir J.) Caledonian Sketches, 12
Cattle, Facts on feeding Cattle with, 228
Chalmers's Caledonia, Vol. I. 168
Character, Sketches of, 210
Charlemagne, Essay on the Reign of, 184
Chemistry, and Mineralogy, Dictionary of, 147
Cheyne on *Hydrocephalus acutus*, 131
Chironomia, Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery, 243
Clarke's *Naufragia*, 219
——, Mrs. Solemn Epistles to, 436
Clinton's (Gen.) Remarks on British Operations in Spain, 327
——, See *Observations*.
Cloutt's Jubilee Sermon, 447
Cochrane on the Vapour-bath, 431
Celia in Search of a Husband, 212
Comber on National Subscription, 60
Considerations on the State of the Stage, 325
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112, 224, 336, 448.
Costello's (Mrs.) Soldier's Orphan, 96
Cottage of the War, 97
Cottagers of Glenburnie, 217
Cottin's (Mad.) Theodore and Blanche, 98
Cotton-plant, Treatise on, 494
Covent-Garden-Theatre, Tracts on the Dispute at, 325
Cowper, Selections from, 222
Cromek's Reliques of Burns, 399
Crosby's Merchant's Pocket Dictionary, 446
Cruise, a Poetical Sketch, 212
Crusades, on the Influence of, 466

D

D'Avaray's Libel, Refutation of, 166
Debt, National, Observations on, 441
Debtor and Creditor Laws, Treatise on, 204
Deffand, Mad. du, Correspondence of, 487
Dictionary, See *Aikin*, See *Nodier*.
Discourses on the Progress of Science, &c. 521
Divine Legation, Essay on, 104
Drummond's Two Discourses, 106
—— 's (W. H.) Translation of Lucretius, 413

E

Ecclesiastical Topography, 109
Education, Theory of, 515
——, See *Fox*.
Eliot's Demonstration, 440
Espinasse, Mademoiselle de l', Letters of, 487
Essays and Thoughts by Bp. Horne, 444
Eton's Materials for a History of the Maltese, 394
Evance's (Miss) Poems, 216
Evans's Jubilee Sermon, 448
Evil, Origin of, Discourses on, 106
Examination of Sir F. Burdett's Plan of Reform, 107
Exercises, Chronological and Biographical, 446

F

Facts and Experiments on feeding Cattle with Sugar, 228
Fall of Portugal, a Tragedy, 320
Fantoccini, or public Puppet-shew, 434
Farm-house, a Tale, 433
Fell's Memoirs of C. J. Fox, 42
Financial Remarks, 440
Fowling, a Poem, 320
Fox, C. J. Memoirs of, 42
——, ——, Characters of, 225
——, Joseph, on Bell's and Lancaster's Systems of Education, 2d Edition, 332
François, M., his Edition of the Duke de Nivernois's Works, 508
Frank— Acta Instituti Clinici Cæs. Univ. Vilnensis, 497
Fraser's (Mrs.) Camilla de Florian, 432

G

Gacon-Dufour, Mad., her Travellers in Persia, 544
Gerard's Institutes of Biblical Criticism, 283
Gilpin's Memoirs of Captain Rogers, 430
Gourlay's Letter to Lord Kellie, 219
Grammar, English, 439
Granger, Mr., Letters to and from, 292
———, his Biographical History continued, 297
Green's Miscellaneous Poetry, 215
Grenada, Moore on, History of, 535
Grimoard's Letters of Lord Bolingbroke, 440
Guiscard, a Romance, 98

H

Hamilton's (Miss) Cottagers of Glenburnie, 217
———'s (Mr.) Parliamentary Logic, 346
Harrod's History of Market-Harborough, 443
Harwood's History of Litchfield, 423
Haslam's Observations on Insanity, 2d Edition, 276
Hayley's Life of Romney, 337
Heeren on the Influence of the Crusades, 466
Henderson on the Yellow Fever, 205
Herbart's Theory of Education, 515
Hervey's Poems, 322
Hewlett's Jubilee Sermon, 335
Historical Account of Lancaster, 443
History, See *Sane*, *Jondot*, *Brooke*, *Wilcocke*, *Granger*, *Eton*, *Harwood*, *Lyte*, *Harrod*.
Hodgkins's Mercantile Letters, 216
Houstein's Sir Owen Glendower, 95
Horæ Ionicæ, 98
Horne, Bp., his Essays and Thoughts, 444
Horticultural Society, Transactions of, 266
Hurd, Bp., Letters between him and Bp. Warburton, 1
Husband and Lover, 95
Hydrocephalus acutus, Essay on, 131

I and J

Jackson's Account of Morocco, 187
Jersey, History of, 443
Insanity, Observations on, 276
Interest and Annuities, Doctrine of, 410
———, Essay on, 504
Jondot's Historical View of all Nations, 537
Jubilee, or John Bull in his Dotage, 338
———, Sermons on the, 335. 447. 448
Justice and Generosity, &c. 325

K

Kellie, Lord, Letter to, 219
Kenneth and Fenella, 318
Kentish's Essay on Baths, 281
Kentlove's Edition of Discourses on the Progress of Science, &c. 521
King's *Monimenta Antiqua*, Vol. IV. 254
Kirwan's Logic, 481

L

Labedoiniere on the Influence of a great Revolution, 474
Lacey's Farm-House, 449
La Fontaine — les Querelles de Famille, 211
Lancaster, Historical Account of, 443
La Place's Supplement on Capillary Action, 516
— ———'s Do. to Book III. of the Celestial Mechanics, 529
Lasteyrie on the Cotton-Plant, 494
Leicestershire Tales, 56
Le Meturier's Bampton Lectures, 371
Letters from an eminent Prelate, 1
——— on the Affairs of Spain, 207
——— of the Swedish Court, 218
——— of a Peruvian Princess, translated, 221
——— from Portugal and Spain, 319
———, two, to a Barrister, 330
Linwood, Miss, Leicestershire Tales, 96
Litchfield, history of, 423
Lithotomy, Treatise on, 206
Liver, Inflammation of, Treatise on, 200
Livery of London, Letter to, 21
Lloyd's Brighton, a Poem, 101
Logic, Essay on, 417
London, Views of, 445
Lucretius, Book I. translated, 433
Lyte's Sketches of the History of Jersey, 442

Malcolm's

M

Malcolm's Letters to and from Mr. Granger, 292
Malta, People of, Materials for their History, 394
Market-Harborough, History of, 443
Marmion travestied, 438
Marocco, Account of, 187
Matilda Montford, 97
Matthews's Naval Triumph, a Poem, 214
Mécanique Céleste, Supplement to, 529
Medea to Jason, 319
Memoirs of Count Puisaye, Vol. VI. 160
Mercantile Letters, 216
Merchant's Pocket Dictionary, 446
Meyer on Interest on Money, 504
Minchin on the Debtor and Creditor Laws, 204
Mineralogy, Dictionary of, 147
Modern Proselytism, 430
Money, See *Interest*.
Moore's Narrative of Sir J. Moore's Campaign, 69
——, See *Clinton*, See *Observations*.
Moors of Granada, History of, 535
Moser's British Loyalty, 324
Mulford's Translation of Letters of a Peruvian Princess, 221
Muniments Antiqua, Vol. IV. 254
Murray's Account of Bruce, 385

N

National Jubilee, a Sermon, 335
Naval Triumph, a Poem, 214
—— Hero, Young, 319
Naufragia, 219
Ned Bentley, 94
Nightingale's Two Sermons, 106
Nivernois, Duke de, his Posthumous Works, 508
Noble's Blackheath, and other Poems, 34
——'s (Rev. M.) Continuation of Granger's Biographical History, 297
Nodier's Dictionary of Words formed by Onomatopœa, 483

O

Observations on the Movements of the Army in Spain, 328
——— on the National Debt, 441
Oliver's English Grammar, 496
Onomatopœa, Words formed by, Dictionary of, 483
Oulton's Traveller's Guide, 221

P

Paley's Sermons, 52
Palmer's Sermon, 111
Palmerin of England, 157
Panthea, Queen of Susia, 328
Parliamentary Logic, 346
Parr's Characters of Fox, 225
Parties, Remarks on the State of, 442
Pearson's Essay on Warburton's Divine Legation, 104
Penrose's Bampton Lectures, 376
Peretti's Tales of the Hermitage, 216
Peruvian Princess, Letters of, 221
Pharmaceutical Nomenclature, Remarks on, 304
Phillips's (Sir R.) Letter to the Livery, 21
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Part I. for 1809 350
Pieces in Verse, 215
Pindar, Peter, Solemn Epistles to Mrs. Clarke, 436
Poems, See *Noble*, *Wright*, *Lloyd*, *Matthews*, *Green*, *Ewance*, *Balfour*, *Ware*, *Smart*, *Hervee*, *Whalley*, *Browne*, *Beck*, *Bowles*, *Wood*.
Poetry, Miscellaneous, 215
Porter's (Sir R.) Letters from Portugal and Spain, 313
Portugal and Spain, Letters from, 313
———, Fall of, 320
Powers, Treatise on, 205
Primitiæ, 210
Principles and Conduct of the War, 442
Puisaye, Count, Memoirs of, Vol. VI. 160
———'s Refutation of D'Avaray's Libel, 168

Q

Querelles de Famille, 211
Quid nunc? Selections from Cowper, &c. 222

R

Rebecca, a Novel, 96
Reed's Practical Sermons, 218
Reform, See *Examination*.
Refutation of D'Avaray's Libel, 168
Reliques of Burns, 399

Remarks

Remarks on the State of Parties, 442
Revolution, on the Influence of, 474
Rhetorical Delivery, Treatise on, 243
Rogers, Captain, Memoirs of, 436
Romney, G., Life of, 337
Ronald, a Legendary Tale, 215
Rowe's Scintilla Juris, 203
Royal Society, Transactions of, Part I. 1809, 350
Rudigar the Dane, a Tale, 433

S

Saint Domingo, Travels in, 532
Saint Helena, History of, 29
Sané's History of the Moors of Grenada, 535
Sceptic, a Satire, 103
Sciences, Progress of, Discourses on, 521
Scintilla Juris, 203
Selections from Cowper, &c. 222
Select Views of London, 445
Senses, an Ode, 215
Sermons, See *Paley, Drummond, Nightingale, Rees, Bransby, Turner, Le Mesurier, Penrice.*
———, Single, 111. 335. 447-448
Shaw's Sermon, 111
——'s (*Dr.*) Zoological Lectures, 113
Short Pieces in Verse, 215
Sir Owen Glendower, 95
Sketches of Character, 210
Smith's Rudigar the Dane, 433
Smart's Selection of Poems, 321
Soldier's Orphan, 96
Sonnets of the 18th Century, 215
Sonsetre's Travels in St. Domingo, 532
Southey's Palmerin of England, 157
Spain, Campaign in, Narrative of, 69
——, Letters on the Affairs of, 107
——, Letters from, 313
——, See *Moore*, See *Clinton*, See *Observations.*
Spanish Heroism, a Poem, 234
Spirit of the Times, 108
Stage, Considerations on the State of, 325
Stephens's Speech, 440
Subsistence, National, Inquiry into, 60
Sugar, See *Facts.*
Sugden's Treatise on Powers, 203
Sussex, View of the Agriculture of, 137
Swedish Court, Letters of, 418

T

Tableau historique des Nations, 537
Tales of the Hermitage, 208
Theodore and Blanche, 98
Theseus, Man of War, Narrative of, 430
Thirlwall's Primitiæ, 220
Topography, Ecclesiastical, 109
Transactions of the Horticult. Society, 266
Travels, See *Bray*, See *Saulnetre.*
Traveller's Guide, 228
Travellers in Persia, 544
Turner's Two Discourses, 330
Two Letters to a Barrister, 30
Tyrol, Travels in, 478

V

Vapour-Bath, See *Kentish*, See *Cochrane.*
Variety, 220
Vaughan's Narrative of the Siege of Zaragoza, 108
Vere's Guiscard, a Romance, 98
Views of London, 445

W

Wakefield's (Miss) Variety, 220
War, Principles and Conduct of the, 442
Warburton, Bp. his Letters to Bp. Hurd, 2
———, See *Pearson.*
Ware's (Mrs.) Poems, 250
Watkins's Young Naval Hero, 329
Whalley's Kenneth and Fenella, 328
Whitbread's Motion, Speech on, 440
White on Inflammation of the Liver, 209
Wilcocke's History of Buenos Ayres, 85
Wilna, University of, Clinical Reports from, 497
Wood's Poems, 435
Woodburn's Ecclesiastical Topography, 109
Wool, Observations on, 381
Wright's Horæ Ionicæ, 98

pleased, particularly, to see so seraphic a madman attack so insufferable a coxcomb as Walpole; and I think they are only fit for one another.

'I could not but laugh at your archness, in what you say about *Antichrist.* You may think, perhaps, and not amiss, that a Discourse on the *great whore*, like that on the little one in Terence, can be, at best, but teaching the spiritual inamorato, *cum ratione insanire*; but this may be something; and not so useless as Parmeno thought it;—for the *madness*, consult the prophet, Whiston; and for the *reason*, the interpreter, Mede.

'The *Dormitory* is already filled; but what inspirations, as a *library*, it may give to the forty little sleepers therein, must be left to time, which reveals all things.

'As to news, when you send me any, I had rather you would consider yourself as my *Purveyor*, than my *Intelligencer*. It is a kind of daily-bread one can hardly do without; eaten to-day with appetite, and gone, one does not care where, to-morrow. I am a great reader of History; but a greater still of professed Romances: so that you see nothing comes amiss to a man who consults his appetite more than his digestion.

'I suppose you have got our friends, Mr. and Mrs. Mason, to town. I wish she may receive all the benefit they propose and hope.'

We must finish our extracts with the accounts which the Bishop of Gloucester gives, first, of his visit to the Court, and then of his preaching before and dining with the Lord Mayor:

'I brought, as usual, a bad cold with me to town; and this being the first day I ventured out of doors, it was employed, as in duty bound, at Court, it being a levee-day. A buffoon Lord in waiting (you may guess whom I mean) was very busy marshaling the circle; and he said to me, without ceremony—"Move forward; you clog up the door-way."—I replied, with as little, "*Did nobody clog up the King's door-stead more than I, there would be room for all honest men.*" This brought the man to himself.

'When the King came up to me, he asked "why I did not come to town before?" I said, "I understood there was no business going forward in the House, in which I could be of service to His Majesty." He replied, "He supposed the severe storm of snow would have brought me up." I replied, "I was under cover of a very warm house."

'You see, by all this, how unfit I am for Courts; so, let us leave them.'

From various passages, indeed, it appears that Warburton's constitution was not suited to the air of a court, and that his haughty spirit could not bend even at the footstool of his sovereign. Nobody ever saw him without being impressed with the loftiness of his character; and we remember to have heard an anecdote from good authority, which is not generally known,

known, but which is illustrative of this fact. Warburton was once in conversation with his bookseller, when Churchill came into the shop, and silently observed the Right Reverend speaker. When the latter departed, Churchill, affecting not to know who he was, asked the bookseller what was the name of the clergyman who had just gone out, and on being told that it was Dr. Warburton, the Bishop of Gloucester, he exclaimed, "Dr. Warburton! why he looks as if he would say to the Apostle Paul, if he should meet him, *D—n you, hold my horse.*"

Another indication of Warburton's dislike of sycophancy occurs, in a passage which also attributes a similar manly spirit to our present venerable sovereign. We find it in a letter dated November 29, 1760.

'Nichols, Potter, and T. Wilson, of Westminster, preaching one after another, bedaubed the new King, who, as Lord Mansfield tells me, expressed his offence publicly, by saying, that he came to Chapel to hear the praises of God, and not his own. There will be some remove of Chaplains; if he should turn out these three, it would give a general satisfaction.'

His conversation with the *King of the city* was more sprightly than the St. James's dialogue:

'I preached my *Propagation Sermon*; and ten or a dozen Bishops dined with my Lord Mayor, a plain and (for this year at least) a munificent man. Whether I made them wiser than ordinary at Bow, I can't tell. I certainly made them merrier than ordinary at the Mansion-house; where we were magnificently treated. The Lord Mayor told me, "the *Common-Council* were much obliged to me, for that this was the first time he ever heard them prayed for." I said, "I considered them as a body who much needed the prayers of the Church."—But, if he told me in what I abounded, I told him in what I thought he was defective—"that I was greatly disappointed to see no Custard at table." He said, "that they had been so ridiculed for their Custard, that none had ventured to make its appearance for many years." I told him, "I supposed that Religion and Custard went out of fashion together."

It is impossible to glance even in the most cursory manner at all the various topics which are introduced into these letters, or to advert to all the circumstances of literary history to which a great part of the correspondence alludes. Indeed, scholars who are acquainted with the controversies of the last age need not any hints on these heads, and to others the details would be uninteresting. No readers, however, can avoid respecting the steadiness of Warburton's friendship as exhibited in this correspondence, and his earnestness in pushing the fame and fortune of his friend; nor can we contemplate the strength and vivacity of his intellect, without at the same time painfully recollecting the state of imbecility to which it

was

was reduced before his death. Such mournful examples are calculated to suppress all literary vanity and pride.

Ad calcem, are subjoined five letters from the Honourable Charles Yorke to Mr. Warburton, some use having been made of them by the editor in Bishop Warburton's Life.

Portraits of the two Bishops properly introduce and characteristically illustrate this volume.

ART. II. *Caledonian Sketches*, or a Tour through Scotland in 1807: to which is prefixed an Explanatory Address to the Public, upon a recent Trial. By Sir John Carr. 4to. pp. 560, and 13 Plates. 3l. 12s. Boards. Matthews and Leigh. 1809.

WHEN the *good-natured* friends of the late Sir John Hill, of quacking celebrity, occasionally reminded him of the *ill-natured* sarcasms on him in the newspapers of the day, he would reply with a smile, "What! do they talk of me? I care not what they say if they do but notice me, for this is a proof that I am worth talking about." Had Sir John Carr possessed the happy feelings of his brother Knight, "My Pocket Book" would never have provoked him to appeal to the Court of King's Bench; nor would his failure before Lord Ellenborough have induced him to enlarge his mortification, by appealing to the public on the result of his trial. What demon could have possessed him, to make him gratify his enemies by an exposure of his irritability, and by now attempting to distinguish between the liberty of the literary press, and that of the caricature press? Surely he thus intimates that, if he be proof against the satirist's pen, he is to be annoyed by the pencil. As, however, the Knight is himself a proficient with both instruments, we think that he would have acted a part more becoming a traveller and a man of the world, if he had treated with equal contempt the ridicule of pamphlets and that of the print-shops; and had smiled at the short-lived malignity which, though it may gratify the spleen of a few, is always sure to die away before a fair and well earned reputation.

The rapidity with which Sir John runs over and describes countries* might induce the remark, that he had a machine for making tours; and though no one would be weak enough to take the allusion literally, it would probably excite a suspicion that the Knight was driving his Pegasus at an unmerciful rate, or, in plain English, was writing himself down. We, however, who have never obtained the character of ill-natured critics, and who had rather "cut up" a fine haunch of venison than any poor author who ever wrote, are happy to observe on the

* See his *Stranger in France—Stranger in Ireland—Northern Summer*—and *Tour through Holland.*

present

present occasion, that the merit of the volume before us is equal to encounter a few prejudices; and that, with whatever sentiments its readers open it, the impression with which they close it will be favourable to the author. He carries us on agreeably: his Caledonian Sketches, both with the pencil and with the pen, are spirited; and the native Scot, as well as the general reader, will be gratified by the exhibition. Like another Howard, Sir John makes a point of visiting and reporting the state of the prisons; like a traveller fond of comforts, he notices the many good inns which are now to be found in the northern part of this island; and like an agreeable collector, he *looks sharp* after anecdotes and *bon mots*. He improves as he proceeds in the career of authorship; the present volume betrays less of the trick of book-making than his former publications; and if he continues thus to amuse as well as to instruct, he needs not feel sore on being 'lashed with pictures.' Caledonia must rejoice on finding a tourist who labours to obliterate the impressions excited by the surly and illiberal Johnson, and to present a portrait of her which is well-drawn and correctly coloured. The flourishing state and growing population of her towns, the diffusion of literature, the comforts, which industry and commerce are gradually introducing, the facilities of conveyance, the state of roads and internal navigation, the progress of agriculture and manufactures, the modes and habits of private life, are detailed, with many other particulars "too tedious to enumerate;" as well as the scenery which is afforded by her coasts, mountains, lochs, rivers, and forests. Sir John does not appear to have been solicitous to reach the *ultima Thule* of the antients, nor even the *Johny Groat's house* of the moderns, since he proceeds no farther north than Inverness, and then diverges to the Western Isles.

Passing over that part of the Tour which does not properly belong to the record, as being descriptive of the author's route from London through Cambridge, York, and Newcastle, to the professed scene of his inquiries, we shall observe that he arrives in Scotland, by Jedburgh through the *debateable land*; and he laments that Dr. Johnson had not entered Caledonia in this direction, because 'the sweetness and luxuriance of the scene might perchance have mitigated, if they would not entirely have charmed away, the severity of prejudices which were conceived and cherished by a long residence in the metropolis of England, and which he appears to have quitted (London) for the sole purpose of endeavouring to confirm.'

A great portion of this volume is occupied by a description of Edinburgh; which, while it instructs the arm-chair traveller, must be highly satisfactory to the Scottish nation:

'I have

'I have seen' (says the Knight) 'a considerable number of cities, but have never yet seen one so peculiarly novel and romantic, and very few so grand and impressive, as Edinburgh. The morning after my arrival, I was conducted to the centre of the Earthen Mound, with my back towards the castle, where the contrast of the objects within my view excited at once my astonishment and admiration On my right, upon an elevated ridge, stood the Old Town, with its lofty houses, in sombre and sullen majesty; on my left the New Town, resembling Bath in the gaiety and splendour of its building; below a vast valley, once the bed of a lake; before me the North Bridge, bestriding this valley, and resembling an aqueduct, behind which rise the craggy summits of the Calton Hills, and on the side of them stands the castellated form of the new Bridewell. The imagination cannot form such an assemblage of sublime and extraordinary objects. Nature and art seem to have happily exerted their energies in bringing within one view all the varieties of their powers. The classical eye has discovered some resemblance between Edinburgh and Athens; the castle has been compared with the Acropolis, Arthur's seat with Mons Hymettus, and Leith and Leith-walk with the Piræus. If the North Loch and Cowgate were filled with water, Edinburgh would in a considerable degree resemble Stockholm, which stands upon insulated ridges of rock. This romantic city is constantly presenting a new picture with the progress of the sun, and upon the change of the atmosphere and the season: the stupendous and magnificent rock and castle finely grouping with every surrounding object.

'The situation of Edinburgh must be extremely healthy; it is surrounded by hills on all sides, except to the northward, where the ground gently slopes to the Frith of Forth. It is bounded on the east by the Calton Hills, Arthur's Seat, and Salisbury Crags; on the south by the long ridge of the Pentland Hills, and the hills of Braid; and on the west by the Costorphine Hill; all of them objects of great beauty or interest. So many lofty mountains, and the opening to the north, frequently subject the city to violent, and sometimes terrible, storms of wind, by which persons walking in the streets have been often thrown to the ground; the effect however, upon the whole, is beneficial to the city, as every narrow street and passage is well ventilated. The extent of Edinburgh, from east to west, is about two English miles, and from north to south about the same distance; and its circumference about eight miles.

'The principal part of the Old Town is raised upon a hill, which gradually rises from east to west, where it terminates in a rocky precipice of 300 feet in height, upon the summit of which stands the castle, now rendered, by the improvements in modern warfare, fit only for a garrison, though once entitled to the character given of it by Burns, in his Address to Edinburgh:—

'There watching high the least alarms,
Thy rough rude fortress gleams afar;
Like some bold vet'ran, grey in arms,
And mark'd with many a seamy scar:
The pond'rous wall and massy bar,
Grim rising o'er the rugged rock,

Have

'Have oft withstood assailing war,
And oft repell'd th' invader's shock.'

Along the summit of this rocky eminence extends a magnificent street, rather more than a mile long, commencing from the castle, and terminating at the palace of Holyrood-house, called in different parts by the several names of Castle-hill, Lawn-market, High-street, and Canongate: other parts of the Old Town are built upon the ridges on either side of this hill, and on the southern hill is raised the new part of the Old Town, in which are several handsome streets, and a mixture of new and ancient houses; this part is connected with the other by a bridge of nineteen arches, only one of which appears, called the South Bridge, thrown over a valley, now formed into a long, dirty, and generally very crowded street, called the Cowgate, the view of which from the visible arch, on each side of South Bridge-street, is equally unexpected and interesting. Towards the North Loch, the houses in the Old Town are of an amazing height, having, from their sloping situation, three or four more stories at the back than in the front.

'The New Town, the great ornament of Edinburgh, is built of stone, upon an elevated plain on the north. The singular beauty of its situation is equalled only by the graceful arrangement of its streets, and the splendid assemblage of its buildings. Yet, compared with the bustle and population of the Old Town, there is a tranquillity in the streets, similar to that which is to be found in Berlin, and which gives it the appearance of being thinly inhabited, and an air altogether melancholy. George's-street is very fine: the people of Edinburgh think it injured by what is whimsically called the *impudence* of the clergy, in bringing the church of St. Andrew so forward, and the *modesty* of the physicians, in placing their hall so far back.—

'The number of handsome hotels were amongst the early objects of my admiration. Some of them are as splendid as any in London, and prove the rapid advance which Edinburgh has made in refinement. The rooms are elegantly furnished, and the servants tolerably clean and very attentive. Not many years since, the inns afforded the most wretched accommodations, and the waiters were so filthy that it was whimsically said of them, that if you were to throw one of them against the wall he would stick there. Indeed, so late as the year 1768, a stranger coming to Edinburgh was obliged to put up at a filthy execrable inn, or bad private lodging. The word *hotel* was then only known to those who understood French or old English: but the Caledonian, like the English capital, has experienced great changes for the better.'

In an account of Edinburgh, it was impossible not to advert to the history of the beautiful and unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots: but, instead of being seduced into tales of other times, we shall keep to the writer's sketches of *things as they are*, and transcribe his account of the mode of living among the students of the university of Edinburgh; which is preferable, in many respects, to the practice at Oxford and Cambridge:

'The students, contrarily to the practice which obtains in the English colleges, live how and where they please, attend what lectures they choose, have little or no private intercourse with the professors, and are under no collegiate discipline whatever. A parent or guardian would, at first, naturally exclaim against this total absence of discipline; but no indecorum or inconvenience is found to follow. Young men of moderate fortune are not mortified and depressed by being forced into a style of living and extravagance to which their finances are inadequate. By living in the city, they have it in their power to visit amongst genteel families, and to temper the austerity of learning with the amenity of good manners. Young men, in bodies, have been known, many times, to present formidable opposition to scholastic discipline, and even to the police of towns in which their seminaries were placed, which, as individuals, they would not dare to attempt. By being thus dispersed, and left to the guidance of their own discretion, no cause can well arise for such combination, nor would it succeed were it attempted. Upon inquiry, I could hear of no excesses committed by any of the students, which, in the slightest degree, affected their character as a body; and when it is considered that, upon an average, there are not less than fifteen hundred students at the University, the result of the inquiry is not a little favourable to the conduct of those who come from remote parts of the kingdom, to draw from this great spring of intellect. At all the principal universities upon the Continent, the same mode of treatment, with regard to the students, is adopted.'

Notice is taken of the imports and exports at Leith, the port of Edinburgh, of colleges, churches, hospitals, judicial establishments, prisons, hackney coaches, &c.; and the population of this city is stated at about 100,000. When mention is made of the livings of the clergy in Scotland, Sir John glances at the state of the priesthood south of the Tweed, and risks the imputation of credulity by telling us of 'a curate in the Isle of Wight who cleans the boots and attends the horses of his sacerdotal master.' Could he suppose that such a fact was possible in the Isle of Wight?

After having experienced the civility of the inhabitants, and remarked every thing worthy of observation in the Caledonian capital, the tourist sets off for Queen's Ferry; visits Dumfermline-Abbey, Hopetoun-house, Linlithgow, the Carron-works, Alloa, Kinross, and arrives at Perth; with the approach to and situation of which city he is much delighted:

'The road to Perth is extremely good, and the country presented an appearance of increased luxuriance and cultivation as I advanced. Wood and corn-fields, hill and dale, every where gladdened the eye; and the looks and habits of the peasantry seemed to correspond with the flourishing gaiety of the surrounding scenery. The superb plain of Gowrie, extending for nearly twenty miles, opened in the most unexpected and beautiful manner. A short distance from Perth, the windings

windings of the Tay, the bridge uniting the rich and romantic country on either side, the handsome appearance of the town, the cavalry barracks, and an expanded view behind, offer to the eye the most enchanting prospect. When Agricola and his army first beheld the Tay, and the adjacent plain, upon which Perth at present stands, it is recorded that they exclaimed, with one voice, "Ecce Tibur! Ecce Campus Martius! Behold the Tiber! Behold the Field of Mars!"—The Italians afterwards called the Tay the New Tiber.

'This river, which deservedly excited the eulogium of the Roman legions, is the chief of all the Scottish waters, and has its source in the western extremity of Perthshire, in the district of Breadalbane, on the frontiers of Lorn, in Argyleshire.

'With an exception of the New Town, Edinburgh, the town of Perth, the capital of the county of Perthshire, is by far the best built and most regular of any in Scotland. Perhaps a finer situation for a capital could not be found. The streets are broad and long, well paved, with handsome buildings on either side, and many elegant shops. It appears that anciently particular streets were inhabited by particular artisans, as the names of some, still preserved, seem to indicate. The inns are excellent. It would be tedious, and foreign to my purpose, to describe this beautiful city very minutely; it will be sufficient to observe, that the principal streets, in the old part of the town, are the High and the South street, both of which are very long, and that George-street, Charlotte-street, the Crescent, Rose Terrace, and the Circus, are the most handsome in the new part. This town has been subject to some very destructive inundations, which have caused the streets to be raised from time to time. Many stories, and even whole houses, are to be found below the surface of the street.'

The whole of this county seems to have captivated the traveller: who remarks, towards the conclusion of the work, that Perthshire surpasses in richness and variety of scenery every county in England. How flattering to a Caledonian must be such an acknowlegement from the pen of an Englishman!

Scone, Dundee, and Montrose, are not overlooked: but to Aberdeen, which contains a population of 30,000 persons, more respect is deservedly shewn. The tourist informs us that 'an acre of land is here worth double the rent of an acre in the neighbourhood of London, owing to the absence of poor-rates.' Without calling in question the accuracy of this observation, as a general statement, the cause assigned for the inequality cannot account for it; since the poor-rates of land in the vicinity of the British capital are not equal to the rent.

In the account of the King's College, Old Aberdeen, an anecdote of Dr. Ogilvie is introduced, for the purpose (it is said) of relieving the sombre character of ecclesiastical description:

'The attachment which the Doctor has to the study of astronomy induced him some years since to cross over to Denmark, for the purpose of personally paying his respects to a celebrated professor of his favourite science at Copenhagen. Unfortunately he arrived at a time when a considerable ferment prevailed in the public mind, in consequence of our having taken and detained one of their ships of war, for what cause I do not remember: the professor largely partook of the public anger; and as it is natural to identify a foreigner with his country, as soon as the Doctor entered the room, the former went up to him, and, forgetful of the compliment of such a visit, and thinking only of the outrage conceived to have been offered to the dignity of Denmark, exclaimed, "Sir, I am glad to see you; but, Sir, how dare *you* to take one of our ships?" Upon which the Doctor, with equal coolness and good humour, drily replied, "Sir, do not be offended with me; upon my honour *I* never took a ship in my life." The answer had the intended effect; the professor laughed at and apologized for the length to which his patriotic ardour had carried him, and treated his worthy guest with all the attention due to him during his stay in the Danish capital.'

Of the road from Aberdeen to Banff, Elgin, &c. Sir John Carr gives no chearing account; and the approach to Forres was so dull and uninteresting, that he wished to meet *weird sisters*, to relieve the monotony and give a scenic effect. The historian, however, will prefer to witches, the anecdotes of the Pretender inserted in the account of Culloden; and the good christian will be better pleased with the story of a peasant's humanity, which occurs in this chapter.

We come next to Inverness, the capital of the Highlands; the counties north of which, as we have before remarked, were not explored by the Knight in his Caledonian rambles. This city is pronounced to be the seat of elegance and refinement; and it is here that the policy of education and its effects in the Highlands are discussed. Having previously visited Ireland, the writer is induced to make a comparison of the state of the poor in that island with the condition of the poor in Scotland; and his reflections on this comparison merit the attention of the statesman:

'Politicians have widely differed with regard to the wisdom of enlightening the poor of a country by education. Upon such a subject men of plain understandings would naturally wonder that any variance of opinion could arise. They would conceive that he who prefers darkness to light, who thinks that the common people are most likely to advance the ends of their creation, that they would be more loyal, more brave, and more virtuous, by continuing in a state of ignorance and stupidity, would, by a parity of reasoning, insist that the blind were the most likely to move with certainty, and the crippled with vigour. But a distempered prejudice still maintains that to illumine the head is to extinguish the heart; that if the humble are taught reading, writing, and a little useful arithmetic, they will

soon fancy themselves under the influence of inspiration, and feel as if they had been intended for some high destiny; that they will desert or disgrace the station of life allotted to them by Providence, and perish upon the dunghill as vagabonds, or by the gallows as forgers. The poor of Scotland seem to have decided this important question: they can read, and yet are loyal; they can write, and yet are honest; they can calculate, and yet are virtuous. By the wise and salutary diffusion of education, particularly in parts which appear to be impenetrable to civilization, upon the sides of frightful mountains, or in dismal glens seldom visited by the rays of Heaven, the astonished and admiring traveller beholds a spectacle at once gratifying and affecting. In a hut of branches and sods, when the hour of labour is over, the young, enlightened by those institutions which do honour to human nature, are seen instructing those who are younger, or consoling the last hours of venerable and sightless age by reading aloud the Scriptures, or some pious book, printed in their own language; yet in this sorry dwelling the benighted traveller may rest in safety amid the howling storm; not a hand will be extended to him but in kindness, not a voice will be raised but to charm his ear with the song of other times, or, if he understands the language, to store his mind with the wild, romantic, and beautiful effusions of the Gaelic Muse.'

Sir John discusses the advantages of the Caledonian canal, which is an undertaking truly Roman; remarks on the vitrified forts, as they are called; and enters into a brief account of the Gaelic language. Diverging to the west, he then skirts the shores of Loch Ness; of which such a description is given as must excite a wish in the lovers of the picturesque to behold the scene itself:

'The ride to Dores, the first and a very short stage, is extremely beautiful; in my way I passed by a Druid's temple, the form of which every one is familiar with. Near this place, upon the top of a hill, the vast watery expanse of Loch Ness, unbroken by islands, twenty-four miles long, and nearly straight from south-west to north-east, opened upon me with all its grandeur. Cultivated fields and a forest of pine formed a corresponding foreground; rocks and mountains—some huge, bare and rugged, and gashed by wintry torrents—others adorned with woods of fir and birch, and all blending with perfect harmony of colouring, in which the heathy purple and a soft yellow seemed to have most diffusion—hung awfully over, or rose with a majestic sweep from the sides of the watery vista, hiding their sublime summits in the clouds. Over many a mile of water the eye beheld its surface, here gently agitated by a partial breeze, there as tranquil as a mirror, reflecting upon its bosom huge fragments of the adjoining crags or mountains; whilst, far in the west, this graceful and sublime scene faded in the sombre mist of distance, and in the darkness of cloud collected from the Atlantic. The prospect led my mind to reflect upon the bright and shaded vicissitudes of life, ending in the gloom of the grave.'

As the tourist proceeds towards Oban, where he embarks for the Western Isles, he experiences all the inconvenience of the very humid atmosphere to which that part of the island is subject. Incessant rains, however, do not so far disconcert him as to relax his mind from its sprightly tone, or from that habit of observation which is so necessary in a gleaner of knowlege for future travellers. He describes the Highlands as 'commencing at Dumbarton, near the mouth of the Clyde, and comprizing the mountainous parts of Scotland from thence to the north and north-west, including the Hebrides.' To afford a picture of the character and civilization of the inhabitants of this sublime and romantic district, a variety of anecdotes and family-sketches are supplied; and it is intimated that, notwithstanding the drain occasioned by emigration to America, the population is increased. Of the improvement of the Highlands in the article of inns, and of the hospitality of the gentry, Sir John makes a very favourable representation: but, according to his account of a Mull equipage, that island is not yet "a land of bridles and saddles." We envied him his visit to Staffa, though it was performed in the rain; since a sight of Fingal's cave, which he not inaptly terms 'the sublime cathedral of nature,' would well remunerate us for the "pelting of the pitiless storm."

"*Littora Skiæ*" the knight did not explore, having, in the island of Mull, *imbibed* sufficient experience of Hybridean humidity. Quitting the family of Ulva-house, where he had been kindly entertained, he seeks the Highland *terra firma*; and, passing up Loch Linnhe by the beautiful island of Lismore, he arrives at Airds, and thence proceeds to Inverary-castle, Loch Lomond, Ross, Dumbarton, Killin, and Dunkeld, in the route to Glasgow, which is the last place noted in this tour. The account of this celebrated and thriving city is included in a single chapter: but, in taking leave of Scotland, the author ventures a poetic flight, presenting us with some tolerable lines on the Caledonian harp; the neglect of which, in favour of the unharmonious bag-pipe, he more than once laments.

We have stumbled on several literal errors in this volume, and on a few expressions which are not strictly English; such as 'gratifications which are violent to sobriety." We shall not specify them, because they may easily be discovered in correcting the book for a second edition: but, without a hint, Sir John may not perhaps discover that at p. 27 he has given the kind-hearted wish of Henry IVth of France to Frederick the Great of Prussia. At p. 471, the tourist must be mistaken, when he speaks of the *south-east* side of the island of Mull as being nearly opposite to Oban.

On

On a principle of public spirit, we would not discourage works of this kind. Whatever leads to a familiar knowlege of the state and resources of our own island, or excites an emulation of improvement, and induces people of fortune to explore our home-beauties, must be serviceable to the empire.

The plates inserted in this volume exhibit views of Edinburgh, Jedburgh, Esk river, Stirling-castle, Perth, Aberdeen, Inverness, Inverary-castle, Dumbarton, Killin, Dunkeld, and Glasgow, executed from drawings by Sir John Carr, which are creditable to his taste and execution as an artist.

ART. III. *A Letter to the Livery of London*, relative to the Views of the Writer in executing the Office of Sheriff. By Sir Richard Phillips, Knt., one of the (late) Sheriffs of London and Middlesex. Crown 8vo. pp. 294. 4s. Boards. Sold by all the Booksellers.

WHILE complaints have been general, and certainly not unfounded, concerning the progress of corruption in various branches of our government, all parties have united in their praises of the judicial administration. Suspicion and detection have mutually produced each other, unfortunately in almost every department: but our tribunals have continued equally pure and unsuspected. If we were to investigate the causes of this high exemption, we apprehend that it would be found principally to result from the publicity of legal proceedings, and the constant recurrence to first principles which is necessarily involved in legal discussion. In every suit, criminal or civil, it is the interest of the losing party to discover some defect in the process to which he is amenable, some error in the application of the law which condemns him, or some deviation from the rule that governs his case: hence the Courts are frequently called to revise their own acts, to superintend the conduct of their officers, to examine the validity of their decisions, and to sift the very grounds of the law; and all these things occur within the observation of anxious parties concerned in the event, of an acute and scrutinizing profession, and of a public equally jealous and enlightened. Thus individual interest, the strongest and steadiest of motives, secures that perpetual vigilance, which has been truly called the condition on which God has granted liberty to man.

Yet whatever reason we may have for boasting of the honesty of verdicts, and the impartiality of judgments, it must be remembered that the subordinate functions of the law are necessarily executed by inferior agents, and without the advantage of notoriety or of public responsibility. Arrests, for

example, must, from their nature, be privately made; and prisoners must be secluded from the general view of their fellow-citizens. The former present as many temptations to avarice as opportunities of extortion: while the abuses to which the latter are liable have a peculiar tendency to harden the heart and degrade the nature of man.

As the sheriff of a county has the legal custody of almost all the King's subjects who are deprived of their liberty, whether before or after judgment, it appears well contrived for the purposes of inquiry and correction that the person holding that office should be annually changed; since inveterate abuses which might escape the animadversion of an established functionary, or in time find a road to conciliate his sufferance, would probably attract the notice of one who is newly invested with powers and duties, and lead him to adopt the necessary measures for reforming the evil. Such, however, has been the reluctance of sheriffs in general to perform this useful service, —a reluctance produced perhaps by the discordance of their former habits, by diffidence in the effect of their exertions, or by actual ignorance of the manner of conducting an office which is wholly intrusted to deputies,— that we do not remember a single appeal to the public, similar to that of which we now proceed to lay the material parts before our readers.

In the autumn of 1807, the author of this letter to the Livery of the metropolis was appointed one of the sheriffs of London and Middlesex, in conjunction with a gentleman of the name of Smith; and both of them seem to have been equally desirous of asserting all the privileges of their office, and of exercising them in the manner most beneficial to the community. Their first act was to enlarge the list of freeholders, of whom the juries are composed; and the number of persons liable to serve on Special Juries was increased from 128 to 400. This is surely a matter of great importance, as it respects both the trial of causes and the general rights of the freeholders. All should take their turn of serving on juries to whom the constitution has committed the interests of their fellow-citizens; as well to insure a real and strict impartiality in every case, as to enable them to exercise the highest and most sacred privilege enjoyed by Englishmen. The number of those who may be called to decide the important questions between the Crown and the subject, which occur in the Exchequer, ought to be sufficiently extensive to exclude all possibility of influence and all suspicion of a monopoly. In the various courts at Westminster Hall, the usual Special Jurymen are as well known as the officers of the Court; and, by a long attendance, they perhaps ultimately acquire the feelings and prejudices of officers,

officers, instead of retaining the unbiassed openness to conviction, and the disregard of every thing but justice, which would characterize men who were indifferently taken from the body of the freeholders. It is unhappily true that many are glad to be relieved from a burdensome duty, and are ready to plead the distance of their residence and various other reasons for avoiding it: but the exercise of constitutional duties is the price of freedom, which every Englishman ought cheerfully to pay.

On this subject, indeed, the Lord Chief Baron remarks, in a letter to Sir R. Phillips which reflects the highest honour on his liberality and politeness, that "some *experience* in serving upon Exchequer special juries is far from being detrimental to the public or defendants, inasmuch as the instructing jury after jury, in the conduct of many species of manufactures, and the laws on the subject, exposes both parties to the hazard of the points being ill-understood, or hastily determined by them." This difficulty, however, which would prove a great deal too much, is in our judgment inseparable from the Trial by Jury. If verdicts were to rest on the experience and previous knowlege of those who deliver them, and not on the evidence laid before them in each particular case, they might possibly be founded on more accurate information: but is not this utterly at variance with the notion of Trial by Jury? We are also inclined to suspect that the legal or scientific experience of permanent special jurymen, after all, would be far too imperfect to be safely trusted in the decision of causes; while it would often engender a certain half-witted obstinacy, which is not less troublesome to a judge than unfavourable to the demands of justice. Besides, succeeding juries are never composed of exactly the same twelve men, and a single new member would require as much instruction as a new jury.—The sheriff is, however, armed with very insufficient powers to compel an accurate return of all freeholders, who ought to be liable to serve on juries; and some farther legislative provision is necessary to secure an object, of which numerous acts of Parliament attest the importance and the difficulty.

The next act of Sheriffs Smith and Phillips was to protest against the employment of the House of Correction in Coldbath Fields, as a place of commitment. This prison may be properly used for carrying into effect a sentence of confinement, inflicted as punishment on a culprit: but, as the sheriff has the legal custody of all persons who are detained for trial, and who ought to be discharged at the general gaol-delivery, it seems manifestly improper that such persons should be in the power of gaolers, over whom the sheriff has no controul. It

is also stated that prisoners are treated in this House of Correction with unnecessary severity, and are deprived of the means of providing for their legal defence. Some other alleged abuses having been submitted to the consideration of commissioners appointed by the King, who have not yet made their report, we shall abstain from mentioning or observing on them.

With regard to the next point, to which the sheriffs directed their attention, it strikes us as highly important:

'The facts are these:—During the first Sessions in which I had the honour to sit as one of the Sheriffs at the Old Bailey, the Grand Jury having returned several bills in Court as *not found*; I was induced, soon afterwards, to ask the keeper of Newgate if those persons had been discharged; and I was much astonished to find, not only that they had not been discharged, but that persons in this situation were always detained till the morning after the Grand Jury had been discharged, when they were brought to the bar, and dismissed by the Court. I learned at the same time that those persons against whom the Grand Jury had found a bill of indictment, and who happened afterwards to be acquitted by the Petty Jury, were immediately discharged. Surprised that persons should continue to be subjected to the restraints, privations, and miseries of a prison, after a Grand Jury had found *that there existed no ground of accusation against them*, I pursued my enquiries among various Officers of the Court, and found that the practice was defended on the ground that *there might be* other charges against these persons; and that it sometimes happened that there were two bills against the same person, only one of which was decided upon in the first instance. Hence it appeared that many persons would be detained for several days, against whom there existed no charge or process, because *it might happen* now and then that some new charge would arise against some one of them.'

The sheriffs, thinking that their authority to detain a man in prison depended only on the charge against him, and that, when that accusation was removed by the verdict of a grand jury, he was as much intitled to his liberty as if the charge had never existed, appear to have agreed on presenting a memorial to the Recorder, stating their disapprobation of the practice; but they *dis*agreed as to the manner of proceeding, and the object was lost. The author, indeed, expresses his hope that his constituents 'will be convinced that (*by him*) *everything was done*' (p. 75), but we think that his own statement proves the reverse. After having observed to the Recorder, in high-sounding phrases, that 'relative to the *restoration* of a *right*, without which the English cease to exist as a free people—a right which formed part of the institutions of Alfred the Great, made a thousand years ago—a right which

was declared by Magna Charta—which has been maintained by rivers of the blood of our ancestors—and which was confirmed at the revolution, Mr. Phillips cannot, as a public officer, enter into any compromise ;'—after an avowal that 'the matter has presented itself to the *mind* of Mr. Phillips, in his *official capacity* ;'—and after having peremptorily called on the Recorder 'to fix such arrangements as may enable the sheriffs *immediately* to discharge, in the *ensuing* sessions, *every* prisoner relative to whom the Grand Jury may have thrown out the bill of indictment;'—the sheriff is told by the Recorder "that he never would consent to the alteration proposed, and that as long as he lived it should continue as it is ;" and the author also hears (p. 226) 'that if the sheriff discharged any prisoner without an order from the Court, the Recorder had threatened to fine the sheriff 500l.' Thus convinced, thus pledged, thus taunted, and thus challenged, we are sorry to say that the patriotic sheriff effects nothing. At the five subsequent sessions which occurred while he was in office, he quietly submitted to the practice which he so violently condemned, though having in his own hands the power of carrying his views into effect, and of ascertaining the legality of a most important constitutional question. This is the more to be lamented, because we are as perfectly persuaded as we can allow ourselves to be on any *ex parte* statement, that the sheriff's views of the law were correctly just. It is expressly enacted by 14 Geo. 3. c. 20, that prisoners, "against whom no bill of indictment shall be found by the Grand Jury, *shall be immediately set at large* ;" and independently of any such enactment, he who restrains the liberty of his fellow subject must shew his warrant for so doing. When a man, who is arrested only because a specific charge has been made against him, is acquitted of it by a competent tribunal, where is the authority to retain him ? *Cessante causâ, cessat et effectus* : the suspected crime, which alone authorized the imprisonment, is wholly removed ; and why is not the prisoner a free man again ? If the point had been brought to issue in a question between the Sheriff and the Recorder, and the law were doubtful, the Judges of England are bound to lean in favour of liberty : but, unless some positive act of Parliament can be produced, we find it difficult to conceive a doubt as to the decision. Sir Richard Phillips very properly states some of the hardships that might ensue from the prevailing doctrine, which gives an unlimited scope to injustice and oppression ; and he has done well in calling the attention of the public to this point of Old Bailey practice : but we cannot admit his claim to praise for abandoning so important a principle.

We

We shall now attend our official conductor to the prisons under his care :

'The prisons of the metropolis which are properly under the jurisdiction of the Sheriffs of London are NEWGATE, which is the *county gaol*; the POULTRY COMPTER, and the GILTSPUR-STREET COMPTER, which are *the city prisons*, each Sheriff taking cognizance of that Compter, which is the nearest to his residence; and LUDGATE, which is a prison for debtors who are citizens of London.

'In Newgate are generally confined from FOUR TO FIVE HUNDRED PRISONERS, male and female, consisting of county debtors,—felons convicted and unconvicted,—state prisoners—and fines, or those sentenced to a definite term of imprisonment. I learn that there have been as many as SEVEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY confined at one time in this prison, but the average of the present year has not exceeded four hundred and twenty, although at particular times there have been as many as five hundred and fifty.

'When it is considered that Newgate is situated in the centre of this great metropolis, that its external dimensions are only 105 yards by 40 yards, and that not more than a fourth of this superficies can be occupied as dwellings for the prisoners, it will at once be obvious that mere personal restraint is not the greatest evil suffered by those who have the unhappiness to be detained within its walls; I understand that when the number of prisoners exceed six hundred, fevers have generally begun to shew themselves: and in 1789, when the number amounted to nearly eight hundred, a contagious fever broke out, and carried off five or six of the prisoners per day.'

The most crowded parts of this prison are the debtors' yard, and the women-felons' yard. The latter description of persons, varying in number from about 110 to 170, occupy two wards 37 feet by 13, with a sick ward, and three little rooms called the Master's side. 'When they lie down on their floors by night, there must necessarily be the same bodily contact and the same economical disposition of hands and legs as in the deck of a slave ship,' of which the drawing was circulated some time ago. Each woman occupies a breadth of about eighteen inches; and when the wards are full, two or three lie crosswise between the feet of every pair of women, whose heads are next to the opposite walls.—The whole of the debtors are crowded into a corner of Newgate, not fifty feet square. Their situation is nearly, but not quite, as dreadful as that of the women-felons.—The *Poultry Compter* is well known to be almost a ruin: but it still continues to be used as a place of commitment, because, it seems, some of the city magistrates claim the right of committing persons, *where they please!*—The *Giltspur-Street Compter* is calculated for the reception of forty debtors, and on an average it contains eighty five.—*Ludgate* is stated to be inadequate for its purposes, but easily susceptible of improvement.

Facts

Facts of this kind, if generally known, could scarcely be permitted to continue, since the remedy is extremely simple, a larger space being in general the only desideratum required. If the building used by the College of Physicians should be sold, it might be permanently annexed to Newgate, and assigned to the debtors exclusively. Land also might be purchased in other places, and proper receptacles erected for human beings. The great merchants of London, who take pride and delight in charity, need no longer advertize for distant objects of romantic bounty; when they daily pass by so serious an accumulation of misery, of which a great part might be entirely removed by moderate contributions. We sincerely wish success to *the Sheriff's Fund*, laudably established by the gentlemen whose shrievalty we are in fact reviewing.

In the course of these details, various observations are made, and some of them are intitled to notice. It is justly remarked that the gaolers' fees operate as a most serious grievance; and that, in all cases, regular salaries ought to be substituted for them. Some of the evils resulting from the system of transportation also are displayed; and many readers will here learn, for the first time, that although government pays* for the banishment of the convicts, no provision is made for restoring them to their country and friends, at the expiration of their term of exile. The men have sometimes the opportunity of working their passage home: but a seven years' transportation of women is in effect banishment for life. This fate appeared particularly severe in the case of several female convicts, who had already spent in prison two out of the seven years to which their punishment extended; and the propriety of completing a Penitentiary, which was *enacted* between twenty and thirty years ago, but has never been seriously undertaken, for the reception of less hardened offenders, is enforced with great shew of reason. Objections are taken to loading prisoners before trial indiscriminately with irons, for the convenience of the gaoler, who would otherwise find some difficulty in distinguishing the numerous individuals in his custody; and the *bail-docks* (i. e. the room connected with the bar at which criminals stand during their trial at the Old Bailey,) are said to be in general so much crowded as to produce some danger of infection. Sheriffs Smith and Phillips made an order that six only should be assembled there at one time, rightly judging it better that the Court should occasionally wait five minutes for a

* The expence is considerable. Between 7 and 800 persons are annually transported, at the rate of about 12*l.* a head.

prisoner,

prisoner, than be exposed to a contagious fever from the suffocating steam of an unwholesome dungeon.

The last subject here considered is the conduct of sheriffs' officers in making arrests, and the management of lock-up houses, more commonly designated as spunging-houses; a familiar title, which is too justly derived from the gross impositions practised in them. An act passed in the thirty-second year of the last reign contained many judicious and humane regulations, which had been long neglected, but were again put in force by the late sheriffs. The fees were reduced within moderate bounds; a table of them, with a list of all the parliamentary regulations on the subject, was placed within the observation of every arrested person; and all bailiffs and others, who should be guilty of extortion in their office, were threatened with immediate dismissal. We may remark, however, that no precautions, be they as prudent as they may, are likely to be here effectual, unless the sheriffs will resolve to employ the most persevering personal vigilance, in checking the rapacity of their agents.

Having touched on all the material points discussed in this volume, we must say a word on the *manner* in which they are treated. We wish that it had been such as would recommend the important objects for which the writer has contended: but too much is said of himself, and too little regard is evinced for the feelings of others. A tone of overbearing mightiness pervades the work; and Mr. Sheriff Phillips speaks with as much contempt of his 'worthy colleague,' as Mr. Constable Dogberry does of his superannuated comrade. The name of the *senior* sheriff is wholly omitted in the statement of many official acts of importance; and no sooner does a slight misunderstanding arise on a point of form, than charges of 'evasion and equivocation' are freely insinuated, and 'his character for honour and fair dealing' are declared to be 'at stake.' On the other hand, the style of addressing members of the government is so stately, and at the same time so impassioned, as to resemble rather the verbose ceremonial of diplomacy, and the courtship of the old heroic romance, than a plain statement from respectable and independent citizens of London, on points involving the well-being of their fellow-citizens. Why should these worthy gentlemen '*intreat* Lord Hawkesbury to accept the most respectful assurances of their *personal attachment* and *devotion* to his Lordship?' Why should Mr. Sheriff Phillips inform the Chief Baron, that he has 'discovered urbanity and liberality to be the *leading* and *actuating traits* of his personal character?' And why must the livery of London have these and twenty other similar expressions repeated to them, in corres-

correspondences most uselessly preserved and reprinted? As to Sir Richard's reiterated professions of the purest motives, they appear to us unnecessary: but of this every man can best judge for himself.

We must add that this volume is so cheap, in proportion to the existing prices, that the writer, who is perhaps better known to the world as a bookseller than as a sheriff, may be reasonably suspected of an intention to expose the extortion of his brethren in the trade. In perusing it, we have been tempted, however, to wish that it were twice as dear, and contained but half its present materials; omitting almost all the letters, and a large proportion of the comments; and preserving little more than the facts stated, with extracts from particular acts of Parliament. All that is valuable in the publication would then have a fair chance of being universally read. — We now close it, without farther exposure of faults, in the hope that it may be found serviceable to the public, by exciting the attention of the respectable gentry who are called to the office of sheriff in their several counties; and by proving that, in a great variety of instances, the most important reformations are fortunately the most practicable.

ART. IV. *A History of the Island of St. Helena,* from its Discovery by the Portuguese to the Year 1806; to which is added an Appendix. By T. H. Brooke, Secretary to the Government of St. Helena. 8vo. pp. 409. 10s. 6d. Boards. Black and Co.

A RESIDENCE of fifteen years at St. Helena, and access to the official records of the island, must be supposed to have rendered Mr. Brooke fully competent to write its description and its history: but when we also consider the perspicuity of his style, and the judgment discovered in his reflections, we are disposed to regret that a mind, which is evidently equal to undertakings of more general interest, should have confined its exertions to a topic of such limited attraction. We are, however, glad to receive this volume from his hands, and may hope hereafter to obtain more important proofs of his assiduity and information.

The superficial extent of the island, as we are told by Mr. Brooke, is about 30,000 acres. It is divided by a lofty chain of hills, running nearly east and west in a curved direction; and from this chain, alternate ridges and valleys branch off in various quarters. The summits of several of these hills are very elevated; and one of them, Diana's Peak, rises nearly 2700 feet above the level of the sea. The extent of the island is somewhat less than eleven miles by seven. Springs issue from

from the side of almost every hill: but, as they have neither volume nor sufficient length of current, they form only inconsiderable rills. We consequently find no cascades of any magnitude, for although one stream projects its whole quantity from a height of about 300 feet perpendicular, it becomes a shower before it reaches the cavity below. — The author describes the romantic prospect of Sandy-bay in the following words:

'The hills on the left, richly clothed with trees to their very summits, display a wonderful contrast to the wild and grotesque nakedness which triumphs on the right, where shelving cliffs, surmounted by huge perpendicular or spiral masses of rock, are multiplied under every shape and aspect. The downward view consists of a variety of ridges, eminences, and ravines, converging towards the sea, into one common valley. Among this scenery are interspersed the dwellings of planters, the different forms of gardens and plantations, and the pasturing of cattle; the prospect closing with the distant sea, rushing in between two black, craggy cliffs, which the surf whitens with its spray.'

The climate may be considered as a medium between those of Europe and those of India, the height of situation counteracting the effects of vicinity to the Line. The use of the settlement to the public consists in its being a station of refreshment to homeward-bound Indiamen. South Sea whalers also resort thither, both for fresh provisions and for the protection of convoy in their passage home. The average number of ships which touch annually at St. Helena is 165. Provisions are consequently very dear, mutton being from 14d. to 18d. per lb., pork 18d. to 20d., fowls 9s. to 12s., and geese 25s. to 30s. The population, exclusive of the garrison, is somewhat above 2000, of whom three fourths are blacks. The price of labour is high, a mechanic requiring from five to seven shillings a day. The sovereignty of the island is completely vested in the East India Company; and the military force consists of a corps of artillery, a regiment of infantry, and the island volunteers.

After having given a very distinct description of the island in his first chapter, Mr. Brooke proceeds to its history from its discovery by the Portuguese in 1501 on the 21st May, (the Anniversary of Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine,) to the present time. In this detail, we acknowlege that we have no wish to accompany him, the subject having, in our opinion, very little claim to general attention; and however important it may be to the East India Company to possess an accurate narrative of the conduct of the different Governors, and a collection of the principal island-acts and documents, as exhibited in Mr. Brooke's appendix, the public would have

been more gratified with a shorter statement. Omitting, therefore, that series of local transactions which have assumed a false magnitude in the author's eyes, we shall direct our attention to a few of the valuable observations with which he has interspersed his pages.

The advocate of humanity will learn with satisfaction that the history of St. Helena affords a striking example of the policy of a mild treatment of negroes. Until 1787, the laws relative to them were extremely severe, and conspiracies were frequent among them: but since 'they have been placed on a footing more suitable to men than to brutes, no insurrection or even serious risk has either taken place or been apprehended.' Until 1787, the evidence of blacks, although conclusive against persons of their own colour, was not admissible against whites; and we have some notable examples of the consequences of such a system. In 1785, Elizabeth Renton, a white inhabitant, in a fit of passion, stabbed one of her female slaves with a carving knife; and the slave died in a few moments. The verdict of the Coroner was "wilful murder;" and the grand jury presented a bill of indictment to the same effect: but, as the only witness was a black, and of course inadmissible against the accused, she escaped. In 1786, a planter named Worrall, and his slave, were detected in the act of sheep-stealing; as the proofs against them rested on the testimony of blacks, the white man could not be brought to trial: but the slave was convicted and sentenced to *death*, although he had acted under the coercion of his master. Such was the law: but the judges were sufficiently equitable to reprieve him, and recommend him to pardon, which was granted.

In the early part of the history of the colony, a system of laws, founded on those of England, was introduced: but it was soon found too complicated for so small a settlement. It was therefore judged expedient to proceed by jury only in criminal cases, and to leave matters of less import to the Governor and Council, who were recommended not to have "their heads troubled with nice points of the common law of England; but rather, on considering the reason of things, to adjudge of all cases in a summary way, according to equity and a good conscience, without tedious delays, or countenancing litigious persons in their vexatious proceedings." Such was the commission given to the judges of St. Helena; and it deserves our attention not only as a plain and candid communication, but as a summary of judicial duty in any situation and in any country. How much would the inhabitants of Great Britain have gained in individual comfort, and how much

much would they have saved in wasted labour, had the form of proceeding in our courts been fashioned on the plan of promptitude which is here recommended! This passage is an extract from the orders of the East India Company; and Mr. Brooke has quoted several of the communications from Leadenhall Street, written in the spirit of the old school, before the Directors became the sovereigns of an extensive territory. All these letters bespeak the men of business; they convey orders in a style of frankness and precision; and they express the motives of the Court in very plain terms, but with a fund of solid argument which would do no discredit to the more polished compositions of the present age.

The inhabitants of St. Helena, however, were not so fortunate in receiving medical as in obtaining legal advice. The wetness of the climate and the moist qualities which they ascribed to yams, their principal article of food, made them imagine that an antidote to such evils was to be found only in the free use of spirituous liquors; and they were confirmed in this notion by the superficial pretenders to medicine, who in that age acted as surgeons on board of the Indiamen. We give an extract from the letter of a St. Helena Governor to the East India Company dated in 1717:

"As an alteration of weather often happens here in less than an hour's space, from sultry heat to very cold, and the mountainy parts of the country are not only windy, but always exposed to great damps and fogs, even in the times we call the dry seasons, we are apt to think it easier to drink water for a constancy in England than in this place. The physical people we sometimes converse with (that is, the ship-surgeons) tell us, that strong liquor is necessary to all people who have no other bread but these watery roots (for a yam is called the water parsnip); and we also find it so; wherefore, though we shall encourage temperance and sobriety, as well by our example as precept, yet it is in vain to dissuade the use of arrack among these people, who prefer it before the choicest wines."

In treating of the internal economy of the island, Mr. Brooke describes emphatically the dangers of impounding the goats which feed at large on the cliffs and precipices. The negroes, inured to this task from their childhood, tread their way through ledges on which a single slip would prove destruction; while the shouts, by which they impel the goats towards the pound, are re-echoed through the abyss beneath. The succeeding little anecdote may give some idea of the nature of the country:

'In the year 1734, a sailor, on his return from the country, wandered among the cliffs at Ladder Hill, which overhang the sea, and found himself at last in a place where he could neither turn, nor sit down

down, not discover any method of escape. In this perilous situation he remained until the following morning, when perceiving a party going to swim, he threw his shoes down to attract notice. He succeeded, and was soon relieved by the natives, who ventured within a few fathoms of him, and lowered down a tope, to which he fastened himself, and was hauled up.'

Of the various governors whose transactions are related in the present volume, Col. Brooke and Col. Patton will principally attract the reader's attention. Colonel Brooke had acquired reputation in the Company's service in Bengal, and was appointed Governor of St. Helena in 1788. One of his first acts was to disuse the practice of flogging among the military, and to rouse again that sense of shame which had been nearly extinguished by the application of the lash. He commuted stripes for labour, and separated from their comrades those who appeared hardened, allotting them a table by themselves under the expressive designation of the "miscreants' mess." These marks of odium soon corrected even the worst among the soldiers; and so much improved did their condition become, that numbers of discharged men returning from India undertook a renewal of service in St. Helena. It was also under Governor Brooke that the fortifications in the heights were rendered effectual, the use of signals adopted, the access to the landing-place improved, the farther importation of slaves interdicted, and the condition of those who were resident on the island ameliorated. He likewise took a most active part in those exertions which terminated in the capture of seven sail of Dutch Indiamen, by the Sceptre man of war, in the year 1795. It deserves notice that the Malays, taken out of the Dutch ships, entered the British artillery service, and proved not only very useful but extremely peaceable in their conduct. A behaviour, so different from that which is often ascribed to them, is to be attributed to the manner in which they were treated. No European was suffered to strike or chastise them on any pretence whatever; and they were punished by no other authority than the sentence of a court martial composed of Malay officers. These men were afterward sent to Ceylon, and a Malay regiment was engrafted on the two companies which had been thus trained at St. Helena.

On Governor Brooke's return home, Col. Patton became his successor in 1801. He had filled the situation of military secretary to the Government of Bengal, and was known to the public as the author of "the Principles of Asiatic Monarchies*." He was successful in improving the ordnance

* For a Review of this work, see M. R. N. S. Vol. 41. p. 285.

department, in amending the morals of the black inhabitants, in increasing the quantity of timber, and in short in every way in which extensive knowlege and a happy ardour for public improvement could have scope in the situation which he filled.

The author concludes with several suggestions for the farther improvement of the island. He considers its retention as of great importance to us, although we remain in possession of the Cape; the anchorage at St. Helena being far preferable, because no wreck is ever known to have occurred there, except one, which happened on the day of its first discovery.

We have perused this volume with considerable satisfaction; and in those passages in which our gratification has been interrupted, the fault was not in the execution. Mr. Brooke's language is so generally correct, that we do not recollect any phrase which demands remark, except the following in page 211. 'Few are inclined to exertion when the object tends to the advantage of *public posterity*, rather than to immediate individual benefit.'—It is to be regretted that the book did not contain a map of the island, in addition to the perspective view of an interior scene, which forms a frontispiece.

ART. V. *Blackheath*; a Poem, in Five Cantos; Lumena, or the Ancient British Battle; and various other Poems, including a Translation of the first Book of the Argonautica of C. Valerius Flaccus. By T. Noble. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Richardson, &c.

WE do not often meet with a volume of poetry, on which we feel justified in bestowing so much commendation as the present. The first and principal composition in the book is in blank verse, and chiefly resembles the style and manner of Thomson. Being almost wholly didactic, however, on that account it appears to us in some degree to want interest; since, though abstract ideas and general topics of reflection may be extremely well expressed, and though a great variety of them may be brought together, it is to the portraits of human Beings, to the elucidation of human characters, and most of all to the natural description of human actions, that we look for subjects of the most lively and permanent interest. Johnson once remarking that Shakspeare's description of Dover cliffs was the grandest and most affecting instance of the natural sublime in the English language, one of his hearers mentioned the speech of Almeria among the tombs in the first Act of *The Mourning Bride*, as equalling it in grandeur

and gloomy horror. The Critic paused a moment, and then remarked that Shakspeare's picture contained a human figure—

> "Half way down
> Hangs one that gathers Samphire;"—

which was wanting in the other, and that therefore Shakspeare was to be preferred. It is precisely in the use of this beauty that our great dramatist, more than any poet in the world, and Thomson, more than any poet of his class, are admirable. Both of them can paint inanimate nature in the justest colours, and both can embody the perceptions and reflections of the mind in the best and most appropriate language: but they know how inferior is the interest excited by such subjects, to that which we feel in the contemplation of our own nature; and they generally display their art in making the former subservient only to the latter.

Poems, of the same nature with that which we are now criticizing, being supposed to be written as the author rambles through the country, in course we expect that he will describe the fields and the hedges; with the grass and the corn which enliven and enrich the one, and the wild roses and thorns which adorn the other; and that, as he walks alone, he will tell us much of what passes in his mind: but, at the same time, we hope to hear a little of the people whom he meets. Even in solitary and contemplative walks, we are always pleased at the interruption of our reveries if a pretty milk-maid, or a groupe of clean and rosy looking peasants, rouse our attention in passing; or if we have the opportunity of observing practically the difference of "*before*" and "*after*," by seeing the rustic lover attentively hand his nymph over even the lowest and the easiest stile, or the clownish husband turn his back on his wife, and leave her to tumble as she can over the roughest and most aukward of these barriers. All walks, it is true, do not afford the same sources of amusement; and perhaps no one could be chosen in which human beings are less picturesque and poetical, than that in which Mr. Noble has laid the scene of his poem. Few but the rich and gaudy citizens, or the wretched and squalid mechanics of the metropolis, are to be found in its vicinity. A highwayman, indeed, might be encountered,—and highwaymen are a very good sort of people for a poet, (at least in the estimation of Mr. Pratt, author of *The Highwayman's Soliloquy*, and Mr. Southey, author of the *Botany-Bay Eclogues*:—but Mr. Noble has fortunately met with none of these gentry. We are therefore obliged to contemplate him alone in his ramble, and hear him describe the country through which he passes, together with the

ideas of his own mind; and we will do him the justice to say that, under these circumstances, he is an elegant, well-informed, and agreeable companion. As a specimen of his didactic powers, we would quote the address to Independance, at the opening of the 4th Canto: but his picture of the old sailor, watching the ship, in which he had served, coming up the river to be broke up at Deptford, will be more entertaining. It is very happily conceived; and in the execution of it the author does not, in our opinion, fall short of the best passages in Thomson:

'Pensive beneath yon solitary elm,
An aged seaman sits:—fixed is his eye
On the refulgent stream that flows below,
Where the rich radiance, an impervious mist
Of brilliant light, plays on the sparkling waves,
And with suffusive lustre veils the scene.
His only arm o'ershades his aching sight,
That pierces, anxious, thro' the dazzling air,
And rests upon its object (scarcely seen,
Yet known to the best feelings of his heart)
The vessel that he fought in from his youth:—
She, on whose deck he often joined the shout
Of battle and of victory,—she, whose sides
Enclosed the field of all his manly force,
The scene of all his friendships:—not a plank
But bears some mark of blood, which once he loved!
On this side, by the foremost cannon, fell
His own right arm, when in pursuit she spread
Her crouded sails, and on the dastard foe
Bore down Britannia's thunder.—Slowly now,
She drifts up heavily upon the tide:
As when an eagle, wounded in 'mid air,
On languid pinions motionless awhile,
Floats on the aërial current, so she moves,
A shattered burden on those very waves,
That often with their sparkling spray have kissed
Her welcome prow, and, resonant, have dashed
Their silvery spume against her rapid sides.
But ah, more swift than when the courted gales
Swelled her expanded canvas, does the mind
Of this poor mariner retrace her course
On distant oceans:—by the tempest driven
He braves the mountain billows, or, involved
In all the dreadful dissonance of fight,
Rends down the colours of the boarded foe!
On his rough brow Remembrance fondly gleams:
His brightened cheek thro' all its wrinkles smiles:
While frequent 'cross his eye, his moistened sleeve
Drawn hastily, wipes off some starting tear.'

The episode of the ruined farmer, in the 4th Canto, will be found equally well executed; and we only regret that we have not more passages of the same nature, and fewer of the didactic. The episode in the 5th Canto is too long and common-place, and wants interest.

Lumena, the next poem in the volume, although not so long nor so various as the first, is in our judgment greatly superior to it in poetical merit. The design appears to be well suited to Mr. Noble's powers; which qualify him, we think, to excel more on subjects in which a vigorous and spirited mode of expression can be used, than on those in which tenderness and pathetic simplicity are required. *Lumena* is the wife of Carwellyn, a chief of the Iceni; and, according to the custom of the times, she goes to the field with her husband, who falls fighting by her side. The songs of the bards celebrating the warriors who die in the battle, and of Lumena describing the glory and death of Carwellyn, with her own exertions first to save him and afterward to rescue his body from the enemy, (which are well connected with passages of description and narration,) form the principal topics of the poem. It opens with Carwellyn's address to Lumena, and to his soldiers; and then follows a description of the battle, which we extract. We certainly meet with nothing better of the kind in the *Bard* or in *Marmion*:

> 'Twas thus, amid the ICENIC bands,
> With throbbing heart and upraised hands,
> CARWELLYN spake:—his beauteous bride,
> LUMENA, prest his ardent side.
> Her eyes, where love and glory burn'd,
> Their brilliant fires upon him turn'd,
> And, while he spake, with heightening glow,
> She pointed, eager, towards the foe.
> When two proud streams their course incline,
> And near a precipice conjoin,
> High swoln their waves united roll,
> They foam, impatient of controul,
> The opposing rock in fragments tear,
> And the black pines, uprooted, bear;—
> So fierce, impetuous, on their foes,
> This double tide of valour flows.
> LUMENA shook the rattling reins;
> The ensanguined wheels foam'd o'er the plains:
> The dead were crushed 'mid seas of gore;
> Their rapid scythes the gasping bore:
> And, followed by vindictive ghosts,
> They hurry, where the thickening hosts,
> Confused, like some impervious cloud,
> Thundered, 'mid dust and darts, aloud.

As, when, by night, rude blasts rush forth,
Armed with the terrors of the North,
Unseen destruction strews the ground,
Promiscuous ruins crash around,
And mingled horrors, with dismay,
Oppress the rising, trembling, day:—
So raged the battle, horror veil'd;
Death's night, with deepening shades, prevail'd;
Demons, enrobed in vapours, stood,
Quaffing new streams of human blood:
While Devastation's furious mien,
Warriors, and clashing cars, between,
Here, amid hurtling arrows rose,
There, with the javelin, gleaming woes,
Flashed quick across the groaning plain,
Doubling, with varied deaths, the slain.
ANDATE,* Conquest's awful form,
Like the red lightening, 'mid the storm,
Moves on her rapid, rustling, plumes,
A meteor 'mid the battle's glooms:
With shouts that shake the bursting skies,
Ten thousand Ghosts around her rise;
And, as her wide wings rush along,
Behind her spreads the gleamy throng,
Anxious, while she, with wavering wreath
Suspended o'er the hosts beneath
In doubtful hesitation, bends
Now here,—now there;—at length, descends
Where the ICENI, dreadful, spread
Their wide pursuit o'er heaps of dead;
Hurl deaths o'ertaking those who fly,
Join groans with shouts of victory.'

Of Mr. Noble's miscellaneous and smaller pieces, we cannot speak in terms of equal commendation. Indeed, they are all below mediocrity.—We are sorry, also, that he has spent his time in translating the *Argonautica*; a composition which, to say the best of it, holds but an inferior rank among the remains of Latin poetry. Yet we are ready to acknowlege that many parts of it possess considerable merit,—especially of that sort which Mr. Noble, from the bent of his own genius, is the most likely to admire; we mean, such merit as consists in elevated and sonorous expression: but, really, the *Fleece* is so stale that it is difficult to endure it;—and we cannot forbear smiling when we find the translator comparing his author to Virgil. In a preface of considerable length, Mr. Noble dwells on the importance attached to the Argonautic expedition, and details some of the theories which have been formed to explain the story; such as that it was typical of the

* Goddess of Victory, among the antient Britons.

earliest

earliest invention of the maritime art, and the first practice of commerce between nations; that the ship into which the treasure was conveyed was named after Chrion, which signifies a ram; and other conjectures. He seems to think that this expedition 'has, in point of consequence, an equal claim to attention with the Trojan War;' and he asks 'why have not the authors who have made it their theme risen to equal celebrity?' He satisfactorily answers this question, indeed, by 'acknowleging that the accounts of this event are more involved in fable; more entangled with extraneous circumstances; and less capable of regular construction than those parts of the Siege of Troy and its consequences which have become so famous by the poems of Homer and Virgil.' This, in our opinion, is not all. Whether we regard the events in question as historically true, or as fabulous, we can look only to the genius of their historians, or inventors, for the sources of the interest which we are to take in them. Those sources of interest are a clear and polished narration, a just delineation of character, and most of all a consistent and well-framed action, supported by causes and motives of sufficient importance to excite our attention. Judging by this criterion, can the story of the Argonauts be compared with that of the Siege of Troy? The cause of the one (we speak now only of the story as it is told, without considering whether it is to be understood literally or as a type,) is a "*Golden Fleece*," — a thing which can have no existence in nature; and which, if it could, would be more a subject of curiosity to children than to men and warriors, whatever false interest and importance may be given to it by Oracles and Prophesies: while the other is founded on one of the most common and natural springs of human action—*Revenge;*—and that passion roused by one of the most acknowleged and cruel injuries that man can suffer from man,—the seduction and rape of a wife. It is to this difference, principally, that we must refer for an answer to Mr. Noble's question. In vain do Orpheus, (or whoever wrote in his name,) Appollonius, and Flaccus, exert all their skill, and the praise of considerable skill must be allowed to each of them; pathos, sublimity, and the imagery and figures of poetry, are thrown away, when they are exerted to dignify an action which, after all its pomp, is but the voyage of a few Grecian pirates in search of a "*Golden Fleece*."

It is admitted that Mr. Noble's preface is ingenious and entertaining, and that he writes as a gentleman and a scholar; we dissent only from him in thinking that, on all occasions, he entertains too high an opinion of the author whose work he is translating, and forms too low an estimate of Apollonius, the predeces-

sor, and (it is but justice to add) in every respect the equal of that author. The present volume contains the translation of only one book of the poem; and we confess that in that portion we find nothing of the smallest interest, or of any extraordinary poetical merit, if we except the account of the storm at sea, which is greatly inferior to the similar passage in the first book of the Æneid, in every point in which it is not a servile imitation of it. Mr. Noble has offered a very respectable translation of this book: but we shall better do him justice by quoting, from his preface, a translation of that part of the second book in which Venus instigates the Lemnian women to murder their husbands, on their return home, attended by female slaves whom they had brought with them from Thrace. After having described the arts of Venus, (in the form of Dryope,) designed to arouse the jealous fury of the wives, the poet thus proceeds:

'Swift thro' each bosom rush'd her startling moan,—
All their struck nerves its kindred tremors own,
While vengeful Venus reigns in every part,
And conquers e'en the fond maternal heart.
Now gaze they on the ocean, and advance,
Along the shores, in well dissembled dance,—
With festal wreathes adorn each sacred place,
And greet their husbands with a false embrace.
Home and the genial board they next prepare,
And spread the lofty couch with treacherous care:
Then, with bewilder'd haste, and mock caress,
Smothering their rage, each husband's bosom press;
Thus, in the midnight of the infernal den,
Tisiphone reclines with guilty men;
To shuddering Phlegyas and to Theseus clings,
And her black snakes around each bosom flings;
In all their dreadful banquet takes her part,
And presses them (their torment) to her heart.
Now Venus shakes the cloudy torch on high,
And floods of smoke in wavy volumes fly:
On every side the deepening shade extends,
Thro' which towards trembling Lemnos she descends,
Girded for contest: tempests round her rise,
And broken flames flash faintly thro' the skies,
While, in applausive peals, her father's hand
Rolls the full thunder o'er the fearful land;
Thence with unusual tones her accents sound,
Redoubling all the horror wide around;
Athos and Pontus and the Euxine lake,
Thro' their dark depths in awful terror shake:
Each mother starts in horror from her rest,
And clasps her fear-chill'd infant to her breast;
Then, as the concubine of Mars commands
In thunder, and gives signal to their bands,

Terror

Terror rush'd forth,—and, with infuriate pace,
Distracted Discord left the stalls of Thrace:
Black Wraths around in livid groups were seen,
Deceit's foul form, and Slaughter's horrid mien;
Death in his most gigantic shape appear'd,
And high his crimson hands, exulting, rear'd.
Venus meantime her height of vengeance dares,
And scenes replete with direful crime prepares:
With groans, and gasping shrieks, and dying cries,
Thro' every house tumultuously she flies:
A sever'd head all-agonized she bore,
Her panting bosom smear'd with recent gore,
Her hair erect—"Lo! here," she shouted "view
What to the violated bed is due!
I first—but, see! the rapid morning breaks!"
Straight, all the rage of jealousy awakes:
Through every chamber she impels their speed,
And finds them deadly weapons for the deed.'

This is well expressed, and gives the sense and spirit of the original accurately enough, except in the last line, which but tamely renders

"*et cunctantibus invenit enses.*"

Mr. Noble's errors, in his original poems, consist chiefly of an undue inflation of language, with a dryness and sterility of style. In any other than very able hands, something of this fault, is inseparable from blank verse: but it should therefore be constantly in the poet's contemplation; and all his efforts should be directed to counteract this unpleasant effect of the materials which he chooses to employ. In Mr. N.'s translations, the same failings are to be found; and he does not always catch the true sense of his original. The following is an instance:—When Jason in the 7th book leaves the presence of Æetes, and Medea is anxiously following him, the poet says:

"*Illa domum atque ipsos paullum procedere postes*
"*Optat, et ardentes tenet intra limina gressus:*"

meaning, we conceive, that, knowing she dared not cross the threshold, she wished the palace to move with her and bear her nearer to her lover:—but Mr. Noble translates it thus:

'Now that the obstructive pillars would retire
And the walls part, becomes her fond desire,
While on the threshold her fixed eyes she strains,
And his last hasty footsteps there retains.'

A few other and similar instances might be found: but they are not worth the trouble of detailing.

Mr. Noble promises that, 'if his translation of the Argonautica is well received, he shall feel himself called upon to bring

bring forward the remaining books, with such a continuance of the subject to the conclusion of the voyage as may be derived from the works of other authors.' We would by no means discourage him from exercising himself in any compositions which he may consider as best adapted to his genius: but we would advise him to prefer original composition; and at all events, as it is probable that he may become a favourite, (especially where it is so desirable to be welcome, at the toilette and in the Drawing Room,) we would caution him against setting down any favours which he may receive to a false account. We are convinced that he will be indebted for them to his Lumena, and his Blackheath, and not to his translations from either Valerius Flaccus or Horace.

It is but proper to remark that the present volume is embellished with beautiful engravings, from the pencil and graver of the author's brothers, and that it is very ornamentally printed.

ART. VI. *Memoirs of the Public Life of the late Right Honourable Charles James Fox.* By R. Fell. 4to. pp. 603. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Hughes. 1808.

IF the reader expects to find in this volume an elaborate and well-digested account of the illustrious subject of it, he will certainly be disappointed: but if on the other hand he treats it as one of those ephemeral productions, which seek to convert into miserable gain the curiosity of a moment, he will not do it justice. Regarded as a production drawn up in haste, it is creditable to the powers of the author. None but an ardent admirer of the original whom he sketches could, in the short time devoted to the task, have atchieved what this writer has accomplished; and a congeniality of sentiments and views with our memorable statesman, united to an enthusiastic veneration for his memory and character, can alone account for the rapid and happy movements of his pen. A style which is flowing and not generally inelegant *, a judicious selection of passages from Mr. Fox's speeches, a lucid and convincing exposition of his principles and maxims, and a just conception of the leading features of his character, constitute the attraction which renders it impossible for an admirer of that orator who has once taken up this volume, to lay it aside unread. The narrative, the observations with which it is accompanied, and the quotations which it includes,

* Of its occasional incorrectness, however, one specimen will afford a sufficient idea:

'He was the strenuous oppugner of those rights, which he afterwards became the most eloquent and impassioned vindicator *of*.'

place

place before our eyes the man himself; and while we feel the value of what we once possessed, we are sensible of the magnitude of our loss. Ascribing to it this general praise, however, we would not be understood to deny that it might owe much to future revisal and impartial examination, and that in its present state it deprecates rigid criticism. We design to submit to our readers a few extracts from it, which cannot fail to interest, while they justify and corroborate our observations.

The author's object is thus stated:

'His idea was, that a digest of the recorded opinions of Mr. Fox (even imperfect as they are, either through the negligence or the incapacity of newspaper reporters) would comprehend the discussion of almost all the great questions that have in any ages engaged the attention, or divided the interests, of mankind. No person in the least acquainted with the proceedings of the British legislature for the last thirty years need be told, that there is scarcely any subject of importance on which Mr. Fox has not left something like a recorded opinion; and, in the judgment of the compiler of the sheets that follow, it was one of the most striking features in the intellectual character of that illustrious man, and in which he far excelled all his contemporaries, that though no orator ever scrutinized local and temporary politics with more acuteness and sagacity than he did, his opinions, divested of their particular reference, are applicable to any times and circumstances, and may be appealed to in all ages and countries as conveying the soundest precepts of moral and political wisdom.'

In the short account of Mr. Fox's birth and lineage, the writer passes over (we think, without any good reason,) the very humble situation in life of Mr. F.'s grand-father's father, which it has been said was that of a day labourer:

'The right honourable Charles James Fox was the third son of Henry first Lord Holland, by lady Georgiana Carolina, eldest daughter of the second duke of Richmond. He was born on the 24th of January 1749. O. S. which answers to the 13th of January according to the new computation. On his mother's side he inherited the blood of the Stuarts and of Henry of Navarre: on his father's his ancestors were respectable but not noble. Sir Stephen Fox, the father of Lord Holland, held several distinguished appointments at the court of Charles II., and was some time master of the horse to that monarch. He was a person of much piety, and of a noble and generous disposition. The churches of Farley in Wiltshire and Culford in Suffolk, which he rebuilt from the ground, remain monuments of the former; and his donation of above thirteen thousand pounds to the military hospital of Chelsea, of which benevolent institution he was a zealous patron and promoter, is a striking example of the latter. Sir Stephen Fox, in 1703, married a second time, at the advanced age of seventy-six years, and had two sons, both of whom received the honour of the peerage, Stephen, the eldest, being created

created by George II. Earl of Ilchester, and Henry, the second son, Lord Holland, by His present Majesty.'

Of Mr. Fox's father, the first Lord Holland, the author says:

'He had but few pretensions indeed to the character of a statesman in the enlarged sense of the term, and those pretensions, such as they were, he laboured so assiduously, through the whole course of his life, to absorb in the more profitable occupation of a courtier, that it would be difficult to form any accurate judgment of his capacity for the higher departments of government. His talents for managing the House of Commons were certainly of the first order; but if this expressive phrase be allowed its full force, it is little praise to say, what is all that is implied by it, that he intrigued as successfully as Mr. Harley, or corrupted as happily as Sir Robert Walpole. He lived and acted in times of a passive mediocrity of talents and events, and his capacity was well suited to such times and the associates with whom he acted.

'But whatever were the errors of the political life of Lord Holland, no man most assuredly ever discharged the duties of a father with superior, probably none with equal, tenderness and affection. A warmth and enthusiasm that it would be difficult to describe, entered into his attachment for his children, and animated all his views respecting them. No intrigues of state, nor any business of office, were ever permitted to divert his attention from the important task he had fondly imposed on himself of superintending their education. Charles James, the illustrious subject of these memoirs, was his favourite from his infancy. His father early perceived in him strong indications of a powerful and commanding genius, and anticipating the future value of his mind, neglected no means to improve and ripen his opening talents.

'It was a maxim which Lord Holland invariably pursued to assist and follow, but in no case whatever to circumscribe or restrain, the perfect exercise of their free will in his children. The various eccentricities of his infancy and youth, which early stamped with the bold features of originality the character whose improvement he had most at heart, were uniformly treated by him with unbounded indulgence. The utmost latitude of his pleasures, and even of his projects and his whims, never, perhaps, in a single instance, occasioned an exertion of paternal authority. His Lordship, it has been said, could advise, importune, and even condescend to stipulate, but never ventured to command his favourite son.

'From his earliest youth, the infant statesman was encouraged to deliver his sentiments with freedom on all subjects, and without restraint in all companies. His first indications of thought and ingenuity were sedulously cherished, and whatever could interest his heart, charm his imagination, or improve his understanding, happily selected, and occasionally thrown in his way for that purpose. This naturally produced a habit of thinking with freedom, and speaking with readiness, at all times and in all places, and probably contributed not a little to that facility of comprehension, and quickness at reply, for which Mr. Fox was afterwards so pre-eminently distinguished in the House of Commons.'

Various

Various circumstances which have been related, and some of which are here detailed, prove that to the injudicious indulgence of his parent must be ascribed much of that alloy by which Mr. Fox's great character was sullied in early life. In particular,

'The invincible passion for gaming, which accompanied Mr. Fox for so many years of his life, and was a source of such infinite vexation to himself, and concern to his friends, as well as a perpetual subject of sarcastic animadversion for his political opponents, is generally supposed to have had its rise in the following circumstance.—At the age of fourteen, Mr. Fox accompanied his father to Spa, at that time a place of fashionable resort of the most distinguished characters from all parts of Europe. Here it is said that Lord Holland excited in his youthful mind a passion for play, by allowing him five guineas a night to be spent in games of hazard'.

Lord Holland preferred a public to a private education for his son, and accordingly sent him first to Westminster school and afterward to Eton. In those seminaries he was distinguished by the brightest promises of genius, by uncommon fondness for and proficiency in classical learning, and by 'levities as bold and extravagant as his scholastic attainments were masterly and unrivalled.' From Eton he went to Oxford, where he was equally remarkable 'for the brilliancy of his parts, the extent of his acquirements, the vivacity of his conversation, and the dissipation of his manners.' At the University he did not long remain, but obtained his father's permission to travel abroad; and

'At this period, (says Mr. Fell,) the continent must have presented a highly interesting spectacle to the mind of a philosophical traveller.' If public prosperity was not at its height, if some things were wanting to complete the happiness of nations and individuals, there was still much in the aspect of public affairs to gratify and console the attentive observer, and the future augured still more favourably for the general interests of humanity. The peace concluded between England and France early in 1763, had speedily been followed by a general pacification, and various circumstances seemed to promise a lasting continuance of the public tranquillity. The disposition of the court of France was decidedly pacific; the enmity so long subsisting between the houses of Austria and Brandenburg was almost worn out, and Maria Theresa and Frederic the Great, now both grown old under a succession of wars which tended only to exhaust their dominions, were mutually anxious to give repose to their subjects. Holland was in a state of decrepitude indeed, but not of absolute abasement; the renown of her former greatness served as a substitute for her present want of power. The Austrian Netherlands were in a flourishing condition; and Germany, through her hundred states, under the prospect of a permanent peace, was rapidly recovering from the multiplied disasters in which she had been involved on account of quarrels foreign

foreign to her interests In the south of Europe, Italy had enjoyed a peace, with very slight interruptions, of between thirty or forty years continuance; but the people, under arbitrary and impolitic forms of government, had not reaped all the benefits they ought to have derived from the auspicious state of their affairs. The extravagance of their governors, the ignorance of their nobility, and the incessant demands of a numerous, indolent, and rapacious priesthood, joined to an universal corruption of manners, prevented them from enjoying the advantages of their situation. On the whole, however, the kingdoms and states which I have passed over in rapid review, wore the visible appearance of ameliorated times; and the mild aspect of the political sky, in proportion as it promised a continuance of the blessings of tranquillity, dispelled the mists of national jealousies, inclined the continental powers to harmonize cordially together, to forget their former prejudices and antipathies, and to seek by mutual concession and good offices, to conciliate their mutual convenience and interest. It was a period of returning confidence, and the nations of the continent were forward in their several advances to meet the good opinion of each other.

'All the old governments of Europe were then in the plenitude of their splendour and authority; and with the different forms of society, and diversity of civil institutions, which had existed for centuries, and every where presented themselves to his view, must have afforded subjects of profound reflection to the vigorous and comprehensive mind of Mr. Fox.

'Few of the particulars of his tour have transpired; but it is impossible to conceal, that his indulgence in all the follies and excesses, so incident at that period to a British youth of family and fortune, far exceeded all bounds of moderation, and obliged his father to recal him before he had visited Rome. Mr. Fox is said to have obeyed the parental mandate with great reluctance, and not until it was oftener than once repeated. A writer who seems to have been well acquainted with the private character of Mr. Fox says, "We can easily imagine how susceptible his heart must have been to the fascinating charms of French vivacity, and, at the same time, how very natural it was for one of his temper to swallow the intoxicating draughts of Italian luxury. Whether it was the splendour of foreign courts, the festivity of select societies, the power of beauty, the charms of science, or the delirium of the gaming table that arrested him, is uncertain; but it was not until after the most earnest and pressing importunities, both from his father and friends, that he determined on returning to England. The extreme prodigality and extravagance imputed to him, and the vast debts which he is said to have contracted in almost every capital on the continent, are among the innumerable desiderata in his story, to which no facts, yet offered to public investigation, have afforded any thing like a satisfactory solution. And, since no panegyric would be decent or sufferable, as little censure ought to be expected or admitted, without the most circumstantial and positive evidence."

'At this period, singular as it may appear to those who have not seen the anecdote, and only recollect the plain and simple dress which

which distinguished Mr. Fox during the latter years of his life, he was a beau in the most extravagant acceptation of the term, and aspired to the praise of leading the fashions in the article of dress. In point of *red heels*, *Paris cut velvet*, and other fopperies of a similar description, he vied with the most egregious coxcombs of the age. These and similar qualifications he displayed at most of the courts of Europe which he visited in the course of his tour; and it was said of him, "that if he did not return like his maternal ancestor, Charles II., with all the vices of the continent; he at least brought back a wardrobe replete with all its fashions."

Another instance of his father's strong partiality, as well as of his disregard of the wholesome political regulations of his country, appears in the circumstance of his procuring for his son a seat in parliament, when he was only in the nineteenth year of his age. The motives of the parent, which were the hopes of withdrawing the son from juvenile dissipation, and the commencement of the young senator's career, are warmly displayed by the author.

'Not only (he continues,) was no notice taken of his incapacity to sit in the house on account of his nonage, but he gained very perceptibly on his auditors by every speech he made, and soon became a favourite with both sides of the house. There was a propriety and vigour, says an author to whom we have more than once already had occasion to offer our acknowledgments, a manliness and majesty in what he said, which it was impossible for impudence to confront, or sophistry to withstand. His wit, his irony and invectives, were not more poignant and forcible than his candour was striking, his reasoning perspicuous, his application fair, and his manner liberal and unaffected. He never rose, as most juvenile orators do, in the midst of a warm debate, merely to expose their own vanity, and insult the patience of the house. He never repeated his lesson like a schoolboy, or exhibited a deplorable imitation of any eminent speaker, or obtruded a dull farrago of common-place remark on his honourable auditors, while their sensibility was roused by the importance of the question, or the eloquence it occasioned. He never exhausted one half of his speech in apologizing for the other, or lost the attention of the house by bestowing his own on any thing that did not deserve it. In such a popular assembly, where so many able speakers are always on the watch to stand up, it requires no little prudence for a young orator to fix on the precise time when his observations will have the best effect. Mr. Fox always spoke as genius and occasion prompted; but never seemed desirous of preventing any member's taking the precedence, nor once fatigued, disgusted, or hung on the ears of, his auditors. His orations, for the most part, were the spontaneous effusions of his own noble mind, delivered without any affectation of superior attention to the subject, without the least mixture of pride or supercilious dogmatism, or any apparent consciousness of those unrivalled merits, which even his antagonists must have allowed him to possess. As a proof of the estimation and reverence

verence in which his powers were held, it has been observed, that he never offered himself to the speaker's eye when he was not equally acceptable to the whole house, nor opened his mouth but the most profound silence ensued.'

That Mr. Fox, on his first entrance into the House, supported government is well known: but the causes of his disagreement with the ministry with which he was associated, and of his retirement from office, have never been satisfactorily assigned. The writer before us gives the following view of those events:

'A variety of causes have been assigned for the rupture which took place between Mr. Fox and the minister, and ended in the dismission of the former from his seat at the board of Treasury. It has been supposed and urged with great plausibility, that Mr. Fox, conscious of his vast superiority over all his competitors, was dissatisfied with the subordinate appointment he held, and looked up to a station of consequence and responsibility more worthy of his acknowledged talents. Lord North had flattered his ambition with the hopes of a seat in the cabinet; but, in proportion as his claims to that distinction became better founded, the minister shewed less inclination to gratify his wishes, or realize those high expectations which he had himself raised and encouraged. Lord North probably dreaded the introduction of a coadjutor into the cabinet, whose abilities he viewed with jealousy, and whose independent spirit he could not hope to govern. On the other hand, it has been asserted, that Mr. Fox's disappointment did not originate with the minister, but in the secret power then lodged behind the throne, which guided the reins of government, and was the fruitful source of all those misfortunes which afterwards fell so heavily on the nation. Those who maintain this opinion, argue very rationally, "that had the minister acted entirely from himself, his own discernment must have taught him that no purchase was too high for a character, whom he could neither keep without honour, nor lose without danger. One, at least, of very inferior sagacity, might have easily foreseen, that in proportion as he was serviceable as a friend, he would also be formidable as an enemy. But the interior cabinet, despairing of being able, in every instance, to bend him to their purpose, and not finding him that pliant and passive tool which their dark despotic edicts required, took the rash and abortive resolution of annihilating his consequence, by putting an abrupt and immediate end to his official existence."'

Mr. Fox's dismissal was sudden, abrupt, and rude in the manner of its communication to him: but he continued to vote in favour of the administration for some time, and did not even remove from the treasury-bench, until the treatment which he had experienced became publicly known.

'His motive (says Mr. Fell) for this forbearance may, perhaps, be traced to an amiable and pious unwillingness to disturb the declining days of his father by an open and avowed dissent from those principles

of

of public conduct to which Lord Holland had steadily adhered through life, and which he had anxiously laboured to cultivate in his son, as the readiest and surest course to power, emolument, and honours. Some respect was undoubtedly due from Mr Fox to the opinions and partialities of a parent, who had treated him with such unbounded indulgence and affection, and to whom he was attached by so many endearing and irresistible obligations. Could he, in whose heart all the charities of human nature were closely interwoven, and whose disposition, to the last moments of his life, retained all the gentleness, benignity, and kindness, of infantine feeling, without any mixture of the moroseness of philosophy, or the arrogance of superior attainments, be censured that he halted between the stern dictates of public duty and the tenderer, but not less powerful, claims of filial gratitude?

'The demise of Lord Holland, which happened in the summer of 1774, released Mr. Fox from the embarrassment here alluded to, and left him at full liberty to pursue the enlightened conclusions of his own judgment. Accordingly, he withdrew himself from the mercenary herd of ministerial adherents, and threw all the weight of his great talents into the scale of opposition.'

We now come to the period at which Mr. Fox commenced his operations in that field of political warfare, in which he was destined so long to continue, so brilliantly to shine, and so unsuccessfully to combat. Mr. Fell thus relates the opening of the campaign:

'His first opposition to the court measures was on the subject of the Boston port bill, and the disfranchisement of the colony of Massachusets bay, which came under the consideration of parliament in the spring of 1774, in consequence of the open resistance which the inhabitants of Boston had made to the invidious tea-duty. Even at this early stage of this unhappy contest, his enlightened mind foresaw the evils that were likely to result from it; and with prophetic sagacity he predicted, that the measures which administration were pursuing would prove, in the event, more sanguinary than the proscriptions of Sylla, and could terminate only in the slaughter of their fellow subjects and the ruin of their country.

'From this period Mr. Fox took an active share in all the debates and proceedings of the American war; ably and eloquently advocating the rights of the oppressed colonists; and exposing with intuitive discernment the blunders and mistakes of administration. The band of illustrious patriots whom he joined in opposing the despotic measures of the court were at first few in number, but strong in talents, integrity and reputation. In the Upper House they could boast of the support of the Earl of Chatham, who, though sinking under the weight of years and infirmities, exerted himself with all the energy of youth in defence of the sacred principles of liberty and humanity; by the side of this venerable statesman were to be found the Marquis of Rockingham, a nobleman adorned with every private and public virtue; Lord Camden, a name never to be mentioned but with respect and gratitude; the Dukes of Grafton and Portland, Lord Shelburne,

burne, and other peers of independent character and sound political principles. In the House of Commons the foremost ranks in the opposition were occupied by Mr. Burke, Colonel Barré, and Mr. Dunning, men very different in their powers, but all endowed with exquisite talents: in florid declamation, or what may be called the picturesque of eloquence, Mr. Burke surpassed Mr. Fox, but in close, unsophisticated argument Mr. Fox was greatly his superiour; Colonel Barré excelled in repartee, his eloquence was feeling and pathetic, and occasionally aspired to grandeur of sentiment; and Mr. Dunning was a profound and logical reasoner, who thought and argued with an enlargement of mind rarely to be met with in men of his profession; but neither of these orators possessed that comprehensiveness of intellect which distinguished Mr. Fox, and led him to predict almost literally the ruinous consequences which ensued from the pernicious measures he opposed.'

On the occasion of the subsequent desertion of several of those who, in the spring of 1780, had joined the popular cause, the author states that Mr. Fox pronounced 'one of the most keen and pointed philippics that was ever heard in the walls of the House of Commons.'

'No calls to order, nor any other means, could either check the torrent of his eloquence or restrain the bitterness of his invective.

'A tergiversation so grossly flagrant and unexpected roused his utmost indignation. He declared the vote of that night to be scandalous, disgraceful, and treacherous. He did not apply these charges to the gentlemen, who had, along with the minister, opposed the resolutions of the 6th of April. These gentlemen acted an open, consistent, and a manly part, in opposing the address proposed on the present day. They had differed from him; he was sorry for it; but he could not blame them, because they differed from him upon principle.

'But who could contemplate, he said, without a mixture of the greatest surprize and indignation, the conduct of another set of men in that house—those who had resolved that the influence of the crown was increased, and ought to be diminished; that the grievances of the people ought to be redressed; who pledged themselves to that house, to the nation, to their constituents, to each other, and to themselves, that it was their duty to redress the grievances complained of; and who had now shamefully fled from that solemn engagement?—Like the case of an individual, who engages to pay a sum of money, or incur a penalty, he insisted that they had solemnly entered into a bond, with the people of England, to withstand the encroachments of prerogative, and to destroy that enormous overgrown corruption which threatened the very existence of their liberties.—But, though they had thus pledged themselves to redress the grievances of the public, they were not, it seems, to be bound by ties the most sacred and forcible. Such a conduct was unaccountable to him on any other motives than those of the basest treachery.

'No man, he said, held those who were habitually at the devotion of the minister in greater contempt than he did. They were slaves

of

of the worst kind, because they sold their own liberty to effect the slavery of others. Yet base as the tenure of their places was, they still possessed the virtues of fidelity, gratitude, and consistency, nor added to their other demerits the absurdity and treachery of one day resolving an opinion to be true, and the next declaring it to be a falsehood. They had not deceived their patron, their friends, or their country, but had fairly adhered to their avowed sentiments. This conduct, so far as it went, was entitled to his approbation. He could forgive the man whom he saw voting regularly with the minister, through thick and thin, on every question; he could view him in his servile state, the abject puppet of despotism, with sentiments of commiseration; he could excuse his cringing and bowing at the levee of the prince or the premier; every creature knew best how to act in his own element; but when he witnessed men affecting the very principles at one time which they opposed at another, it filled him with horrour. His inmost thoughts revolted at such a shameless versatility of sentiment. It reduced politics to a mere science of loss and gain. It made the duty of representation a farce. It was an insult on the faith of the nation; and exhibited parliament to the world as acting without any regard to right or wrong.'

From this period, the writer observes, nothing remained to fix the political character of Mr. Fox:

'He was decidedly the most popular senator in the kingdom; not from a concurrence of fortuitous circumstances in his favour, like those which elevated Mr. Pitt, when distinguished as the *great commoner*, to such a height of popular applause, but from a conviction operating through the nation at large, that the public good was the paramount aim and end of his conduct.—From the period of his quitting the court party, he had inflexibly proved himself, what a member of the House of Commons ought to be, a vigilant guardian of the rights and liberties of the people: he cherished and watched over their interests with unceasing solicitude: he considered the great body of the people as radically invested by nature with all the majesty of authority and law, and that whatever militated against their happiness was contrary to the true end of government. Though obliged by national habits and legislative forms to act as a party-man, there was nothing of petty cabal, low-mindedness, or insignificance in his system of opposition; it was directed to great interests and objects, and actuated by noble motives. The corruptions of the court had no allurements for him. He regarded himself, what about this time he began to be popularly designated, as the MAN OF THE PEOPLE; he had no feelings or interests separate from theirs; and prosecuted no views of which their advantage was not the ultimate object.'

Mr. Fell then proceeds to a sketch of Mr. Fox's *private* character at this æra; and it is fairly represented that the erroneous propensities of his early days continued to tarnish the lustre of his maturer years. The chances of the hazard-table, and the equally uncertain sports of Newmarket, had invincible

attachments for that mind, which was so nobly calculated to judge of the fortunes of national war and the operations of a legislature; and a total mismanagement of his own pecuniary affairs lamentably distinguished him who could acutely detect the errors of the public financier. Warmly as Mr. Fell admires the political life of his hero, he is not blind to his errors as a man; and perhaps it is chiefly in a want of justice to Mr. Fox's adversaries, that this author's prepossessions will be seen to have intrenched on his impartiality.

The latter parts of this volume are less interesting, but only as being more generally known, and fresher in every person's recollection. To enter into a detail of them, and to observe on them, would be highly gratifying to us, if our space and our other duties admitted. So much do the extracts from the speeches retain of the spirit and characteristics of this great orator's effusions, that, if nothing more complete be likely to come before us, we should be glad to see them collected together under the superintendance of some one of his numerous intelligent friends. If we suffer the mass of civil and political wisdom, which they contain, to be lost through neglect, we shall stand convicted of the last degree of insensibility, and of extreme injustice towards posterity.

ART. VII. *Sermons on several Subjects.* By the late Rev. William Paley, D. D. Subdean of Lincoln, Prebendary of St Paul's, and Rector of Bishopwearmouth. 8vo. pp. 527. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

COMPLAINTS are often made of the inefficacy of preaching, without adverting to the chief cause of this failure. Man, as a moral and religious Being, frequently acts a very strange and inconsistent part; and it is extremely difficult to teach and manage him by exhortation. He assents without being touched, hears the serious preacher with declared satisfaction, but without correspondent feelings, and owns the importance of religious principle without being religious. With such a creature, something more than the exhibition of general views must be attempted. The ordinary operations of the mind, as they affect the religious principle, must be minutely analyzed; and those sentiments and affections which lurk about the heart, and disincline us to the spiritual life, must be so detected and exposed to the inward monitor, as to baffle the arts of self deception, and make us ashamed of the farce which we are playing with our own souls. The discourses of Dr. Paley have this great aim. They are neither pretty nor fine compositions: but they are plain and searching; calculated to tear off the mask with

with which we often veil ourselves *to ourselves*; and to set every man on that close examination of his own mind, which is necessary to excite in the soul any activity in repelling sin, or in cultivating inward purity. With a perfect knowlege of the human heart, he developes those hidden springs of action, which, though they set in motion the whole moral machine, (if we may use the expression,) pass unobserved by the generality of mankind. Were we to ask men if they do not prefer the favour of God to his displeasure, and a state of happiness to a state of rejection in a future state; whether virtue be not preferable to vice; and whether "he who walketh uprightly" does not walk more surely than the sinner; — the answer would be uniformly in the affirmative: — but how little does that answer accord with the overwhelming immorality of the world? Here the contrariety, between the principles which we admit and the practice which we adopt, is a fair matter of exposure: but it requires no little management to make us consistent. Declamations against infidelity and irreligion have no effect on the hearers of sermons; because addresses of this kind they cannot apply to themselves: nor are they more sensibly moved by calls to the unconverted. The probe must be particularly applied. The unbelief of the believing, the irreligion of the religious, and the immorality of the moral, must be scrutinized. Even by the majority of church-goers, Christianity is made to consist of a sort of accommodation, by which they mean to keep on favourable terms both with God and Mammon, — to be good enough to cherish the hope of heaven, and yet not so good as to preclude all worldly conformity.

If any sermons can reach such puzzling cases, those of Dr. Paley may be expected to succeed. They appear not to have been intended by him for general circulation*; and in one respect they are better for this circumstance; since they are unostenta-

* The advertisement says, 'The author of these sermons, by a codicil to his will, declared as follows: — "If my life had been continued, it was my intention to have printed at Sunderland a volume of sermons—about 500 copies; to be distributed gratis in the parish; and I had proceeded so far in the design as to have transcribed several sermons for that purpose, which are in a parcel by themselves. There is also a parcel from which I intended to make other transcripts; but the business is in an imperfect unfinished state; the arrangement is not settled further than that I thought the sermon on Seriousness in Religion should come first, and then the doctrinal Sermons; there are also many repetitions in them, and some that might be omitted or consolidated with others." The codicil then goes on to direct, that, after such disposition should have been made respect-

ostentatiously practical, consisting for the most part of that plain and serious argumentation and expostulation, which a sensible believer would employ in the parlour towards friends for whose spiritual welfare he felt the deepest concern. Though he appears to us not to be correct in the explanation of all his texts, and not to be most happy in his elucidation of some difficult theological points, yet as a Christian moral philosopher he perfectly knows his ground, and he has taken the most effectual means of bringing the religious principle into full activity.

Of the thirty-five discourses which are included in this posthumous volume, the first is intitled *Seriousness in Religion indispensable above all other Dispositions*; and it is throughout illustrative of those remarks which we have made on that sort of preaching which the state of the Christian church requires. Dr. P. manifests his liberality in the very act of censuring levity, and judiciously instructs his readers to guard against the effects which commonly result from the ludicrous exposure of those who are supposed to carry their religious zeal to a great excess. We shall copy the passage to which we refer, because we have no desire in our arguments with the Methodists about certain doctrines, to avail ourselves of the aid of calumny and misrepresentation; and because we should be happy to lead Christians of different communions to deal fairly with each other. After having shewn the impossibility of implanting serious considerations in a mind which is possessed by a spirit of levity, Dr. Paley minutely traces its pernicious operation.

'A cause which has a strong tendency to destroy religious seriousness, and which almost infallibly prevents its formation and growth in young minds, is levity in conversation upon religious subjects, or upon subjects connected with religion. Whether we regard the practice with respect to those who use it, or to those who hear it, it is highly to be blamed, and is productive of great mischief. In those who use it, it amounts almost to a proof that they are destitute of religious seriousness. The principle itself is destroyed in them, or was never formed in them. Upon those who hear, its effect is this. If they have concern about religion, and the disposition towards religion which they ought to have, and which we signify by this word *seriousness*, they will be inwardly shocked and offended by the levity with

---

ing the manuscripts as might be deemed necessary, they should be printed by the Rev. Mr. Stephenson, at the expence of the testator's executors, and distributed in the neighbourhood, first to those who frequented church, then to farmer's families in the country, then to such as had a person in the family who could read, and were likely to read them; and finally, it is added, "I would not have the said sermons published for sale."—These directions were fulfilled: but the fear of a surreptitious sale induced the Executors afterward to publish the discourses.

which

which they hear it treated. They will, as it were, resent such treatment of a subject, which by them has always been thought upon with awe and dread and veneration. But the pain with which they were at first affected goes off by hearing frequently the same sort of language; and then they will be almost sure, if they examine the state of their minds as to religion, to feel a change in themselves for the worse. This is the danger to which those are exposed, who had before imbibed serious impressions. Those who had not, will be prevented, by such sort of conversation, from ever imbibing them at all; so that its influence is in all cases pernicious.

'The turn which this levity usually takes, is in jests and raillery upon the opinions, or the peculiarities, or the persons of men of particular sects, or who bear particular names; especially if they happen to be more serious than ourselves. And of late this loose, and I can hardly help calling it profane humour, has been directed chiefly against the followers of Methodism. But against whomsoever it happens to be pointed, it has all the bad effects both upon the speaker and the hearer which we have noticed: and as in other instances, so in this, give me leave to say that it is very much misplaced. In the first place, were the doctrines and sentiments of those who bear this name ever so foolish and extravagant (I do not say that they are either) this proposition I shall always maintain to be true, viz. that the wildest opinion that ever was entertained in matters of religion, is more rational than unconcern about these matters. Upon this subject nothing is so absurd as indifference; no folly so contemptible as thoughtlessness and levity. In the next place, do Methodists deserve this treatment? Be their particular doctrines what they may, the professors of these doctrines appear to be in earnest about them; and a man who is in earnest in religion cannot be a bad man, still less a fit subject for derision. I am no Methodist myself. In their leading doctrines I differ from them. But I contend, that sincere men are not, for these, or indeed, any doctrines, to be made laughing-stocks to others. I do not bring in the case of Methodists in this part of my discourse, for the purpose of vindicating their tenets, but for the purpose of observing (and I wish that the observation may weigh with all my readers) that the custom of treating their characters and persons, their preaching or their preachers, their meetings or worship, with scorn, has the pernicious consequence of destroying our own seriousness, together with the seriousness of those who hear or join in such sort of conversation; especially if they be young persons: and I am persuaded that much mischief is actually done in this very way.

'A phrase much used upon these occasions, and frequent in the mouth of those who speak of such as in religious matters are more serious than themselves, is, "that they are righteous over much." These, it is true, are scripture words; and it is that circumstance which has given currency to the expression: but in the way and sense in which they are used, I am convinced that they are exceedingly misapplied. The text occurs once in the Bible, and only once, It is in the book of Ecclesiastes, 7th chap. and 16th verse. It is not very easy to determine what is meant by it in the place in which it is found. It is a very obscure passage. It seems to me most pro-

bable, that it relates to an external affectation of righteousness, not prompted by internal principle: or rather to the assuming the character of righteousness, merely to vaunt or shew our superiority over others: to conceitedness in religion: in like manner as the caution delivered in the same verse, "be not overwise," respects the ostentation of wisdom, and not the attainment itself. So long as we mean by righteousness, a sincere and anxious desire to seek out the will of God, and to perform it, it is impossible to be righteous over-much. There is no such thing in nature: nor was it, nor could it be, the intention of any passage in the Bible, to say that there is, or to authorize us in casting over-righteousness as a reproach or a censure upon any one.'

In the sermon on the *Taste for Devotion*, rules are given for the use of public forms, which, howsoever obvious, are generally wanted:

'Forms of public worship must, by their very nature, be in a great degree general: that is, must be calculated for the average condition of human and of Christian life: but it is one property of the devotional spirit, which we speak of, to give a particularity to our worship, though it be carried on in a congregation of fellow Christians, and expressed in terms which were framed and conceived for the use of all. And it does this, by calling up recollections which will apply most closely, and bring home most nearly to ourselves, those terms and those expressions. For instance, in public worship, we thank God in general terms, that is, we join with the congregation in a general thanksgiving; but a devout man brings to church the recollection of special and particular mercies, particular bounties, particular providencies, particular deliverances, particular relief recently experienced, specially and critically granted in the moment of want or danger, or eminently and supereminently vouchsafed to us individually. These he bears in his thoughts; he applies as he proceeds; that which was general, he makes close and circumstantial; his heart rises towards God, by a sense of mercies vouchsafed to himself. He does not, however, confine himself to those favours of Providence, which he enjoys above many others; he does not dwell upon distinction alone; he sees God in all his goodness, in all his bounty. Bodily ease, for instance, is not less valuable, not less a mercy, because others are at ease, as well as himself. The same of his health, the use of his limbs, the faculties of his understanding. But what I mean is, that, in his mind, he brings to church mercies, in which he is interested, and that the most general expressions of thankfulness attach with him upon particular recollections of goodness, particular subjects of gratitude; so that the holy fervour of his devotion is supported; never wants, nor can want, materials to act upon. It is the office, therefore, of an internal spirit of devotion to make worship personal. We have seen that it will be so with thanksgiving. It will be the same likewise with every other part of divine worship. The confession of sins in our liturgy, and perhaps in all liturgies, is general; but our sins, alas! are particular: our conscience not

not only acknowledges a deplorable weakness and imperfection in the discharge of our duty, but is stung also with remembrances and compunctions, excited by particular offences. When we come, therefore, to confess our sins, let memory do its office faithfully. Let these sins rise up before our eyes. All language is imperfect. Forms, intended for general use, must consist of general terms, and are so far inadequate. They *may* be rehearsed by the lips with very little of application to our own case. But this *will* never be so, if the spirit of devotion be within us. A devout mind is exceedingly stirred, when it has sins to confess. None but a hardened sinner can even think of his sins without pain. But when he is to lay them, with supplications for pardon, before his Maker; when he is to expose his heart to God; it will always be with powerful inward feelings of guilt and calamity. It hath been well said of prayer, that prayer will either make a man leave off sinning, or sin will make him leave off prayer. And the same is true of confession. If confession be sincere, if it be such as a right capacity for devotion will make it to be, it will call up our proper and particular sins so distinctly to our view, their guilt, their danger, their end; whither they are carrying us; in what they will conclude; that, if we can return to them again without molestation from our conscience, then religion is not within us.'

The discourses on *the Love of God*, on *Meditating on Religion*, on *Purity of Heart*, on the *Doctrine of Conversion*, on *Prayer in Imitation of Christ*, on *Insensibility to Offences*, on *Seriousness of Heart*, on *Neglect of Warnings*, on the *Terrors of the Lord*, &c. have all a searching nature; and no man of any reflection can rise from the perusal of them without self-examination. Though Dr. P. represents practical Christianity as comprized in three words, *devotion*, *self-government*, and *benevolence*, he knew that this concise view of the subject was insufficient to enforce these great duties, and he has therefore enlarged with minuteness on the above-mentioned obligations. On the doctrine of conversion, he has made some very proper distinctions. Here he remarks:

'I am willing to believe, that there are very many Christians, who neither have in any part of their lives been without influencing principles, nor have at any time been involved in the habit and course of a particular known sin, or have allowed themselves in such course and practice. Sins, without doubt, they have committed, more than sufficient to humble them to the dust; but they have not, to repeat the same words again, lived in a course of any particular known sin, whether of commission or neglect; and by deliberation, and of aforethought, allowed themselves in such course. The *conversion* therefore, above described, cannot apply to, or be required of, such Christians. To these we must preach, not conversion, but *improvement*. Improvement, continual improvement, must be our text, and our topic; improvement in grace, in piety, in disposition, in virtue. Now, I put the doctrine of *improvement*, not merely upon the consideration

deration, which yet is founded upon express Scripture authority, that, whatever improvement we make in ourselves, we are thereby sure to meliorate our future condition, receiving at the hand of God a proportionable reward for our efforts, our sacrifices, our perseverance, so that our labour is never lost, is never, as St. Paul expressly assures us, in vain in the Lord; though this, I say, be a firm and established ground to go upon, yet it is not the ground upon which I, at present, place the necessity of a constant progressive improvement in virtue. I rather wish to lay down upon the subject this proposition; namely, that continual improvement is essential in the Christian character, as an evidence of its sincerity; that, if what we have hitherto done in religion has been done from truly religious motives, we shall necessarily *go on;* that, if our religion be real, it cannot stop. There is no standing still: it is not compatible with the nature of the subject: if the principles which actuated us, be principles of godliness, they must continue to actuate us; and, under this continued stimulus and influence, we must necessarily grow better and better. If this effect do not take place, the conclusion is, that our principles are weak, or hollow, or unsound. Unless we find ourselves grow better, we are not right. For example, if our transgressions do not become fewer and fewer, it is to be feared, that we have left off striving against sin, and then we are not sincere.'

The sermons on *the Efficacy of the Death of Christ* are not so well argued as most of the discourses in the collection; and we apprehend that the preacher was not quite satisfied with this part of his labours, since one of the series was missing in the packet of them, which perhaps he had withdrawn with the intention of replacing it by another that might please him better. We do not think with him, (see Sermon 26.) that *the body of this death*, Rom. vii. 24, relates to the second death; nor that in the text to Sermon 31, the words *lose his own soul*, Matt. xvi. 26, refer to the punishment of hell; nor that his terrific representation at p. 561 of the future miseries of the wicked is correct: but for the most part we have no objection to his doctrine, which is eminently practical, and warranted by scripture.

It is the endeavour of the preacher, in the sermon No. 32, intitled *Preservation and Recovery from Sin*, to aid us by some plain rules in *denying* ungodliness, (text Titus ii. 11, 12,) as well as in living righteously and godlily. The last sermon, on *the General Resurrection*, is equally pointed with the rest; as the conclusion will prove:

'They that have done good, shall come again unto the Resurrection of life. But, alas! I hear you say, What good can I do; my means and my opportunities are too small and straightened to think of doing good. You do not sufficiently reflect, what doing good is. You are apt to confine the notion of it to giving to others, and giv-

ing liberally. This, no doubt, is right and meritorious: but it is certainly not in every man's power; comparatively speaking, it is indeed, in the power of very few. But doing good is of a much more general nature; and is in a greater or less degree practicable by all. For, whenever we make one human creature happier, or better than he would have been without our help, then we do good. And when we do this from a proper motive, that is with a sense and a desire of pleasing God by doing it, then we do good in the true sense of the text, and of God's gracious promise. Now let every one, in particular, reflect, whether, in this sense, he has not some good in his power: some within his own doors, to his family, his children, his kindred; by his labour, his authority, his example, by bringing them up, and keeping them in the way of passing their lives honestly, and quietly, and usefully. What good more important, more practicable than this is? Again, something may be done beyond our own household: by acts of tenderness and kindness, of help and compassion to our neighbours. Not a particle of this will be lost. It is all set down in the book of life; and happy are they, who have much there! And again, if any of us be really sorry, that we have not so much in our power, as we would desire, let us remember this short rule, that since we can do little good, to take care that we do no harm. Let us shew our sincerity by our innocence: that, at least, is always in our power.

'Finally, let us reflect, that in the habitations of life are many mansions; rewards of various orders and degrees, proportioned to our various degrees of virtue and exertion here. "He that soweth plenteously, shall reap plenteously." We can never do too much; never be too earnest in doing good; because every good action here will, we are certain, be an addition of happiness hereafter; will advance us to a better condition in the life to come, whatever be our lot or success in this. God will not fail of his promise. He hath commissioned his beloved Son to tell us, that they that have done good shall enter into the resurrection of life. Let us humbly and thankfully accept his gracious offer. We have but one business in this world. It is to strive to make us worthy of a better. Whatever this trial may cost us: how long, how earnestly, how patiently soever, through whatever difficulties, by whatever toils we endeavour to obey and please our Maker, we are supported in them by this solid and never ceasing consolation, "that our labour is not in vain in the Lord."

We have not distinctly specified every discourse: but we have transcribed enough from this volume to shew that the respectable and lamented preacher aimed not at fame but usefulness, and thought not of pleasing but of improving his fellow-creatures.

Art.

ART. VIII. *An Inquiry into the State of National Subsistence, as connected with the Progress of Wealth and Population.* By W. T. Comber. 8vo. pp. 382. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

THIS book may be divided into two parts, one containing the history of our corn-laws, and an account of those regulations which are at present in force, while the other communicates the author's ideas on the theory of subsistence. We shall bestow our principal attention on the former part, because it is by much the better of the two; Mr. Comber, although not unacquainted with the doctrines of political economy, having by no means attained that intimate knowlege of them, nor that facility and promptitude in their application, which are indispensable preliminaries to the accuracy of new propositions.

After an introduction, more calculated to shew the writer's erudition than to give a clear outline of his work, we are presented, in the first chapter, with an account of the state of agriculture in the time of the Britons and Anglo-Saxons. In this part also, as indeed throughout the whole volume, Mr. Comber's solicitude to display the extent of his reading may be remarked: but our objections to this disposition, while it is confined to narrative and description, are less serious than when it is permitted to darken and entangle the path of science by complex and visionary theories. Among the Saxons, Mr. C. informs us, four distinct tenures of land subsisted: *allodial*, which implied the property of an *odalsman*, or independent nobleman; *thane-land*, meaning land granted by the King to his immediate dependants; *folkland*, by which we are to understand a provision for such of the people as were dependent neither on the King nor on the nobility; and *bockland*, or *bookland*, denoting a tenure by deed or instrument in writing, which in those rude ages was extremely rare. The contempt for laborious occupations which was entertained by the Saxons, in common with other uncivilized nations joined to the natural fickleness of the climate, occasioned the frequent recurrence of famines, and produced the greatest miseries; which were aggravated by the intestine wars of the Heptarchy, and by the subsequent struggles with the Danes. The influence of the Christian religion was favourable indeed to industry, but it was accompanied by heavy demands on the national produce, for the erection of churches and monasteries; and at the close of the reign of Edward the Confessor, it was computed that one third of the lands of the kingdom were granted to the endowment of religious foundations.

foundations. It may be safely laid down, as a general remark, that the state of England, in the time of the Saxons, was rather pastoral than arable.

The occupation of England by the Normans produced, in regard to land, all the consequences of absolute conquest. A great part of the estates of the Saxon nobility was confiscated and divided among William's followers, while the native proprietors of inferior rank were glad to secure their possessions by holding them as fiefs of a Norman lord. The allodial thus gave way to the feudal system, and even the church-lands were no longer exempt from the obligation of military service. It is important to remark that, in the distribution of the estates of the feudal lords, the proportion of land held by the vassals on their own account was small; the greater part of the lordship being retained by the owner, and cultivated by his servants or dependants for his own use. No system could be less favourable to agricultural improvement than the occupancy of such ignorant and restless masters; and accordingly the occurrence of famine was a calamity as frequent after the Conquest as before. Money also was very scarce, and the rate of interest consequently very high; the principal causes of which were the exactions of the Court of Rome, the rage for crusading, and a general taste among the nobles for foreign luxuries,—the cloths of Flanders, the wines of France, and the ornamental fabrics of the East.

In this unsettled state of society, the prices of corn, as might naturally be expected, were very fluctuating. One year, we are told, wheat bore a price equivalent to nine shillings of our present money per quarter; and a year or two afterward, five times as much. Before we draw conclusions, however, from these statements, we should attend to two things; first, that these reports are generally local, and by no means descriptive of the currency of prices throughout the country; and secondly, that wheat was consumed by the great only, the mass of the people being supported on a coarser diet. The price of wheat, therefore, was in those days by no means so accurate an index of the general state of provisions as it is in the present. Mr. Comber also very justly attributes a great part of the fluctuations in the price of wheat to the absurd laws against forestalling, regrating, and engrossing, which precluded the existence of corn-merchants, and prevented the abundance of one year from being made subservient to the alleviation of the scarcity of the next.

It was in 1394, in the reign of Richard II., that the exportation of grain to all parts was first permitted by Act of

of Parliament; subject, however, to certain duties, and liable to restraint by the King in Council, whenever high prices at home might render that measure necessary. Soon after this time, Leadenhall was built as a public granary for London.—In 1437, exportation was allowed whenever the quarter of wheat did not exceed a price corresponding to 13s. 4d. of our present money; and in 1463 we meet with an indication of the vigilant attention of the landholders to their own interest; when, having made complaints of the losses sustained by the importation of foreign grain, they obtained an act prohibiting such importation whenever wheat was below 11s. of our present money. This appears to have been the first restriction on import. The exportation of wool to the Continent, particularly to the manufacturing country of Flanders, had been considerable since the 13th century; and towards the end of the 15th, the English government became apprehensive that the frequent conversion of corn-land into sheep-walks might injure the prosperity of the kingdom. Acts for the maintenance of tillage, and the restriction of pasturage, were accordingly passed in 1488, 1515, 1534, 1552, 1562, and 1597; regulations which did not, probably, originate with the landed interest, but resulted from the general impression that the produce of pasture compared with tillage was unsubstantial and precarious. The influence of the landed interest, however, was visible in the acts passed in the reign of Elizabeth, the general scope of which was to permit the exportation of grain whenever prices were reasonable at home. Although nothing can be more equitable than such a permission, yet if we advert to the anxiety of the lower orders to prevent, at all times, the egress of provisions, we shall be satisfied that to obtain that permission required no small degree of exertion on the part of the proprietors of land; clogged even as it was with the payment of a considerable duty to the crown. In the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, the export of wheat was allowed only when the average home-price was at or below 6s. 8d. per quarter: but, as prices rose, the landed interest obtained an extension of the permission, whenever wheat should be at or below 10s. the quarter; and finally, in the end of her reign, whenever it should be at or below 20s. This rapid advance of prices, during the time of Elizabeth, is equalled in no period of our history except the present; and the enhancement continued during a part of the next century: since, in the reign of James Ist, we find exportation permitted whenever our own prices should not exceed an average, first of 26s. 8d. per quarter, and subsequently of 32s. In the period, therefore, of sixty years, the prices of

wheat

wheat appear to have quadrupled; and this extraordinary rise of prices, or, in other words, this depreciation of money, is ascribed by Dr. Smith to the influx of the precious metals from America. During the period mentioned, the exportation seems to have been considerable, and must have been productive of a large revenue, since a duty of 2s. per quarter was payable on wheat, and 16d. on all other grain. It was at this epoch that the city of London built granaries for corn and coals in Bridewell.

In the history of our corn-laws, it is important to keep in mind that the most powerful body in our Parliament have always been land-holders, or persons interested in raising the prices of corn. The acts passed with this view have not originated with the Crown, which has no motive for enhancing prices; and still less with the people, who, being the consumers, have every motive for lowering them. They have proceeded, therefore, exclusively from Parliament; and accordingly, during those intervals of the 17th century in which the power of Parliament was suspended, no new regulations of the corn-market took place. This remark applies to three several periods, the reign of Charles I., the Protectorate, and the reign of James II.: but no sooner did Parliament resume its authority at the Restoration, as well as at the Revolution, than each epoch was marked by a statute in favour of the land-holders. The act passed at the Restoration lowered the export-duty on wheat from 2s. to 1s. per quarter; and this reduction was perfectly fair: but a different sentence must be passed on another part of the Act, namely, that which discouraged the importation of foreign grain; a discouragement which was aggravated by subsequent Acts of Parliament under Charles II. though it was not till the Revolution that the landed interest made an arbitrary use of their parliamentary preponderance. Till that time, they had gone no farther than to secure to themselves the whole supply of the home-market: but the Act of 1688 gave them, in addition, a large bounty for supplying foreigners. It provided that, whenever wheat was at or under 48s., a bounty of 5s. per quarter should be paid on export; a correspondent bounty was allowed on the export of other British grain; and the restrictions on the import of foreign corn were so heavy as to amount to a prohibition.

Such was the law of the land during the greater part of a century, namely from 1688 to 1773. Our exportations, as we may naturally conclude, were large; and the sums paid for bounty were so great as to form a heavy addition to the public burdens:—an addition not expended for any purpose of national benefit, but accompanied by the strange result of enabling

enabling foreigners to buy our corn cheaper than we bought it ourselves. The early part of the present reign, however, being marked by scarcity and high prices, it was found necessary to resort to temporary suspensions of this Act, as well as to abrogate the absurd laws against middle-men; and at last, in 1773, the continued pressure of scarcity, the influence of Dr. Smith's opinion, and the patriotic exertions of Mr. Burke, led to the memorable repeal of the prohibition on foreign grain. Yet this repeal could not be effected in the absolute manner which those enlightened men desired, and sound policy dictated, because the landed interest were too powerful to make a total surrender of a system which they conceived (although very erroneously) to be conducive to the increase of their rents: but the public distress was considerably mitigated, and a visible approximation was made to the adoption of a wiser policy. The provisions of this Act were that foreign corn might be imported, at a trifling duty, whenever British wheat was so high as 48s; and that a bounty should not be allowed on the export of British corn, unless the home-price was as low as 44s. The Act was founded on the assumption that the price of 48s. was fair both for the grower and the consumer; and its object was to prevent deviation from that price, by calling in a foreign supply when our markets were likely to rise, and continuing to give a premium for export when they were likely to fall. Such has been the policy of our corn-laws ever since 1773. They have subsequently undergone two great alterations, in regard to the scale of prices: but these alterations have proceeded from the depreciation of money, and the principle of the law has remained unvaried. In 1791 the value of money was considerably lower than in 1773, and the importation of foreign wheat was discouraged, unless our home price should be as high as 54s.; and in 1804, a still farther depreciation of money having taken place, the importation of foreign corn was discouraged unless our own should be as high as 66s. This continues to be the law at present; and the general inference to be drawn from it, when connected with the regulations of bounty on export, is that, as far as it depends on Acts of Parliament, our average price of wheat shall not be higher than 66s. nor lower than 53s.

Having thus laid before our readers, partly from our own sources of information, and partly from Mr. Comber's work, a narrative of our corn-laws, the next task which we proposed to ourselves was an analysis of Mr. C.'s speculations: but they are so much blended with other matter, and expressed with such an unfortunate prolixity, that we are obliged to desist from the

attempt of presenting them in a connected view, and forced to confine our observations to detached points. In these we are disposed partly to accord with and partly to dissent from him. To the former class, we refer his remark (p. 112) 'that the small occupancies existing under the feudal system were unfavourable to the advancement of agricultural skill, and were accompanied by a want of economy in the essentials both of animal and human labour:' as well as his argument (page 148), that the frequent scarcities, during the prevalence of the bounty on export, shew the fallacy of the favourite plea of the landed interest, that 'to give a bounty on export is the best means of creating a regular superabundance of our home growth.' We farther agree with him (page 175) in condemning the warehouse duty of 2s. 6d. on foreign wheat imposed in 1791, and in lamenting (page 210) that our system of corn-laws 'should have so direct a tendency to create fluctuation and irregularity of price.' He exemplifies this observation very aptly by the state of the London market in 1801. Between the end of May and the middle of June of that year, wheat fell from 156s. to 100s; in July, it rose again to 155s.; and in the end of August, it fell to 74s. He maintains very justly (page 258), that 'to call the warehousing of foreign corn a discouragement to our own growth, is to infer that agriculture cannot be maintained without the occasional occurrence of scarcity and enormous prices;' and he gives us salutary advice in recommending (page 321) the 'partial introduction of the use of other grain for bread in the place of wheat.' His remark also (page 216), that 'the enormous enchancement in the price of our corn, as well as other commodities, has been caused by our taxes,' is not the less deserving of approbation for being obvious; since a great part of the community ascribes this enhancement to the avarice of our landholders, and another part attributes it, with equal gravity, to an increase of national wealth.

After this enumeration in Mr. Comber's favour, and our testimony to the evident disinterestedness of his views, although writing on a subject connected with his own pursuits, we must in other respects pass a very different sentence on his book. Professing to give a history of our corn-laws only, he deviates perpetually into general reasonings on the history of our whole commerce: though an admirer of Dr. Smith, he is so little impressed with the extent of that philosopher's conclusions as to dwell seriously on the mercantile notion of a balance of trade, and to consider a decline in the rate of interest as no public advantage; and, after having cautioned us, in his preface, to distrust theories and look to facts, he affords us in his own work an example of a writer

being led away, in almost every page, from the obvious track of narrative into the devious field of speculation. Such authors ought never to forget that, while speculation is to the well-stored mind the source of important discoveries, it is a pathless and barren waste to those whose knowlege is confined, and whose principles are not ascertained. Instead of yielding to a propensity to draw hasty conclusions of their own, let them meditate attentively the opinions of those who have preceded them; and instead of vainly grasping at early fame, let them be assured that the only way of obtaining reputation is to avoid coming before the public till their ideas are digested and matured. Dr. Smith's works are both the fountain of knowlege in political economy, and an example of that careful execution which is indispensable to success.

Faulty as Mr. Comber's volume is, however, we would not be understood to discourage his future compositions. He has given evidence both of liberality in design and of industry in execution; and his Appendix contains a very useful abstract of our Acts of Parliament relative to the rate of interest, the price of labour, the export of grain, the encouragement of tillage, the price of provisions, forestallers, aliens, &c. We recommend its statements to the attention of many readers whom we could not advise to attempt the perusal of Mr. Comber's disquisitions; and the thanks of literary men are due to the writer who presents to them, in a convenient shape, that official information which it is so tedious to seek in the statute-book, or in the voluminous reports of Parliamentary Committees.

We select the following passage as a favourable specimen of Mr. Comber's reasoning:

'The complaints of the farmers of the inadequacy of the prices in 1803 and 1804, were such as to occasion a committee of the House of Commons to be appointed to take the subject into consideration, and to examine into the existing laws respecting the commerce of grain. The committee reported, "that the high prices had occasioned large tracts of waste land to be brought into cultivation, which, combined with the two last productive seasons, had depressed the value of grain so much as it was feared would greatly tend to the discouragement of agriculture; unless maintained by the support of parliament." The interpretation of this enigmatical report appears to be, that the prices which had already become depressed by an extension of growth at home, might become so much further depressed by the competition of the foreign grower, if it were not prevented, as to discourage the production of grain. This is further explained by the committee, where they observe, "that when the regulations were most favourable to the growers, the export of corn for more than sixty years together had produced annually 700,000l. to the nation. But on the other hand, as the laws bore hard on the grower, importations

tations had increased, the balance had been turned against the nation, and in the last 13 years had amounted to 30 millions."

'It is quite inconceivable that a committee of the House of Commons, under a grave examination into the causes of an apparent derangement in one of the most important branches of the domestic economy of the state, should adopt the language of a few superficial declaimers. It is always better to assign no reasons than such as are untenable. This is a very partial and uncandid statement of the account. In estimating the gain of the nation from the export of corn, they take credit for the whole proceeds of the corn sold, without any deductions whatever for rent of land, interest of money, or wages of labour, and without deducting, as they certainly ought the sums paid by government for bounty to the grower; and in estimating the loss from importation, they debit the nation with the whole cost of the grain, without making any allowance for the circumstances by which the price was so greatly raised beyond the usual rate, and the total amount so considerably augmented, and without taking credit for the rent of land, interest of money, or wages of labour, which would have been required for raising it at home. But the fact was, that we could not produce it at home, and therefore the importation became more a matter of necessity than choice, and certainly did not arise from the regulations being unfavourable to the grower; but as far it was at all occasioned by those regulations, arose from the injudicious attempts to promote his interest.

'After the nation had so recently experienced the inconveniencies of scarcity, which in the estimation of every impartial man, can only be attributed to the unfavourableness of the seasons, combined with the want of encouragements to forming stores either of English or foreign wheat; we cannot but be surprized at the impatience of the nation under the first effects of the re-action of these causes. The cry of the agriculture of the country being endangered, is one of those stale tricks by which the interested impose upon the ignorant, or by which the powerful choose to colour their aggressions. An increase of tillage in consequence of high prices, was a natural effect of the return of the pendulum, and would have gradually corrected itself; to suppose that it should necessarily verge again to an opposite extreme implies that there exists no principle by which the production of grain will regulate itself to the demand. At all events, if the securing a certain price to the farmer was found necessary for this purpose, it would have been more candid and dignified to have stated this, than to have recurred to the exploded errors of the bounty system, or to the false statement of an ideal balance.

'If the securing a higher price had become necessary, from any change in the circumstances of the society, either to afford the farmer a fair living profit, or even to enable the land-owner to maintain his rank in the society, the liberality of the nation would not have withheld its sanction to the measures for that purpose. It might, however, probably not have recurred to such as had already been found inconsistent with that regularity of supply and security against want, which the interests of every class in the society imperiously call for.'

No part of Mr. Comber's book is less satisfactory than that in which he offers suggestions for amending our system relative to the import of foreign corn. These remarks occur in pages 248, 249, and 251; and they are really so little suited to the comprehensive views which ought to characterize an advocate for reform, that we decline to quote them. Our own opinion points to complete liberty, as well in the import as the export of all grain; and we recognize no reason for difference of regulation in regard to British and foreign grain. This opinion is not founded on the assumption that, because the land-holders are wealthy, they ought to be excluded from an indemnity for the taxes which they pay, but on a deliberate conviction that this state of perfect freedom is equally conducive to the prosperity of the landed interest and to that of the public at large. The fundamental ground of this conviction is the fact that the price of food regulates the price of other things. An increase in the *money*-rent of land is speedily followed by a correspondent increase in the price of other commodities; so that the addition to the land-holder is merely nominal, it being requisite that the amount of his expenditure should be proportionally augmented. An increase in the *real* value of his rent is to be found only in the general prosperity of the country, and the consequent multiplication of those articles which he purchases with his rent: but the ratio of this prosperity is greatly lessened by any measure which enhances food, and consequently the price of labour. Our power of competition with foreign countries is thus greatly diminished; a severe national loss is sustained; and of this loss, the land-holders, who possess so large a share of the public property, are certain of suffering their full proportion. The value of their incomes is lessened according as the abundance of those commodities, for which income is exchangeable, undergoes diminution; or, in other words, according as the general prosperity of the country is impaired.

In contradiction to the vulgar prejudice that the corn-dealers enter into combinations for enhancing grain, Mr. Comber very justly remarks that they are often buyers as well as sellers, and that in no class of merchants does a greater variety of opinions exist. It is estimated (page 197.) that the usual stock of English wheat in the kingdom, previously to the coming in of a new crop, is equal only to three months' consumption; and that one half of it, at least, is destined for seed. The prices of corn in the exporting countries, in Poland as well as America, are regulated, in dear seasons, by those of England; and it is a curious fact that, a century ago, in consequence of the cattle feeding on wastes and commons, instead of good pastures, the lambs, sheep, and calves weighed little more than a third, and the

the oxen considerably less than half, of what they weigh at present.

We shall conclude by quoting, from Mr. Comber's Appendix, a statement of the distribution of land throughout England and Wales:

'The Proportion of land cultivated for different purposes in England and Wales.

	Acres.
Wheat	3,160,000
Barley and rye	861,000
Oats and beans	2,872,000
Clover, rye, grass, &c.	1,149,000
Roots and cabbage cultivated by the plough	1,150,000
Fallow	2,297,000
Hop grounds	56,000
Nursery grounds	9,000
Fruit and kitchen gardens cultivated by the spade	41,000
Pleasure grounds	16,000
Land depastured by cattle	17,479,000
Hedge-rows, copses, and woods	1,641,000
Ways, water, &c.	1,316,000
	32,027,000
Commons and waste lands	6,473,000
Total acres in England and Wales	38,500,000'

ART. IX. *A Narrative of the Campaign of the British Army in Spain*, commanded by his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, K. B. &c. &c. Authenticated by official Papers and original Letters. By James Moore, Esq. 4to. pp. 324. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1809.

IMPORTANT state-measures not only attract general notice, but should always be open to the most ample investigation; and the conduct of any individual, who has acted a prominent part in the contrivance or in the execution of them, should be equally subject to the scrutiny of the community, whose welfare they involved. Where merit has been displayed, the result of this examination ought to be, and always would be, adequate reward: if failure be proved, the sentence of the public should be retributive in proportion to the extent of the incapacity, the negligence, or the treachery which has been manifested. These observations are common-place; and it seems as if such a system would naturally and constantly prevail: but experience shews that sometimes the world is kept so far in ignorance of the secret springs and finer movements of the political ma-

chine, that neither the praise nor the blame which has been deserved has been judiciously apportioned; and we still more frequently perceive that it is difficult, if not impossible, to fix and to instruct the public mind respecting national affairs, sufficiently to form a correct judgment, to derive wisdom from past experience, to punish the minister who has erred, and to deter him or his successor from future trifling with the welfare of empires. From the want of this requisite watchfulness and *dictation*, the rulers of a country often persist in a mistaken line of conduct, after costly experiments have shewn its fallacy; and that country is made unjust to the merits or prodigal in the gratification of their agents, at the instigations of interest, of partiality, or of dislike.

On all accounts, therefore, we are glad when the operation of any of these causes puts the public in possession of authentic and more complete documents, in relation to great political events, than would otherwise perhaps have reached them. In the case which at present excites our attention, the hard lot of a very gallant soldier has produced a development of this kind; and we are told by his brother, from whom the volume before us proceeds, that

'Although the King and the British Nation have proclaimed their admiration of Sir John Moore as loudly as of any of the most distinguished military characters that preceded him: yet, like the Great and Good of every age, he has not escaped the insinuations of Envy, even after terminating an illustrious career by a most glorious death. The effects of Calumny against so noble a character can be of no long duration; but during that period the Relatives and Friends suffer, and the uninformed part of the Public remain, in some degree, in suspence. It is, therefore, incumbent on a Brother by unfolding the truth to prove to all, that the pretended facts upon which the malignant representations were founded, are utterly false.'

We had not the honour of knowing, nor of being in any way connected with, Sir John Moore: but in common with the world we know that he had been engaged in a variety of actions, in which his frequent wounds and the constant praises of his superiors attested his gallantry, his enterprize, and his judgment; and in the General Orders of His Royal Highness the late Commander in Chief, after the fall of this lamented officer, we have a tribute to his high merits, the just sentiments and glowing terms of which will ever be as honourable to the giver as to the object of them. Towards the close of these orders, it is remarked:

"The life of Sir John Moore was spent among the troops.

"During the season of repose, his time was devoted to the care and instruction of the Officer and Soldier; in war, he courted service

in

in every quarter of the globe. Regardless of personal considerations, he esteemed that to which his Country called him the post of honour, and by his undaunted spirit, and unconquerable perseverance, he pointed the way to victory.

" His Country, the object of his latest solicitude, will rear a Monument to his lamented memory; and the Commander in Chief feels he is paying the best tribute to his fame by thus holding him forth as an example to the Army.'

These feelings, however, have not been altogether ratified and participated by the Government and the nation: but by both have occasional intimations been given, that Sir John Moore's decision of abandoning the Spanish cause was unwelcome at home, and that his retreat of the British Army was inglorious abroad. Another attempt has been made to effect that object which the deceased commander relinquished as hopeless; and the panegyrics of His Majesty, personally *, together with the distinctions which spring from him as the fountain, but which testify also the participation of his ministers, are showered on the officer whose efforts have now been brilliantly but vainly directed to this end: an officer gallant and able (we are willing to grant) like Sir John Moore, but whose present career in the same arena gives bleeding testimony to the correctness of that General's sentiments, while it meets with such different acknowlegement.

This case, then, is interesting, and deserving of investigation, as far as the reputation of Sir John Moore is concerned: but it is highly important as involving the question of the propriety of the operations of a British Army in Spain: a system, in which the administration of this country has persevered since the failure of the campaign of 1808, and which, it is but too evident, will be marked by similar disappointment in the events of 1809. Under all these impressions, we may be allowed to dwell at some length on the documents provided in the volume before us; which is composed from a Journal of proceedings constantly kept by Sir John Moore, authenticated by original papers, official records, and the reports of Staff Officers. It contains the whole correspondence with Mr. Frere, 'except two *useless* letters from him which were never received by the General;' and all Sir J. M.'s dispatches to the Secretary of State, with very few omissions, and such as are 'quite immaterial to the public;' together with his correspondence with Spanish Officers, civil and military, Lieutenant-Generals Sir David Baird and Hope, Major-Generals Lord Wm. Bentinck and Leith, &c. &c.

* The orders concerning Sir John Moore are from the Commander in Chief in his name only: but those which relate to Sir Arthur Wellesley are from the Commander in Chief in *the King's* name

On the 25th September 1808, a dispatch was written by Lord Castlereagh to Sir John Moore at Lisbon, communicating to him the intelligence of his appointment to the command of an army of 'not less than 30,000 infantry and 5000 cavalry,' to be employed in the North of Spain. Of this force, from 10 to 12,000 men were yet to be sent from England, under Sir David Baird, to be landed at Corunna, but the larger proportion was to be taken by Sir John from the army in Portugal. The dispatch was received by the General on the 6th of October; and after having experienced great difficulties in forwarding the equipment of the troops, particularly from *the inexperience of the Commissariat*, he thus writes on the 27th: 'Every thing is now clear of Lisbon, except two regiments, which march to-morrow and the day following; and I shall myself leave it in a couple of hours.' He had before stated that his intention was to intrust the conduct of the marches to the Generals conducting columns, and to proceed himself direct to Almeida; and he now says:

"I am under the necessity of sending General Hope with the artillery, cavalry, and a corps of infantry, in all about 6,000 men, by the great road leading from Badajos to Madrid, as every information agreed, that no other was fit for the artillery, or could be recommended for the cavalry. This is a great round, and will separate the corps for a time, from the rest of the army: but there is no help for it; the road turns to the left a short distance from Madrid, and leads upon Espinar, from whence it can be directed on Valladolid and Burgos, or whatever other place may be judged hereafter best for the assembling of the army.

"Sir David Baird arrived at Corunna on the 13th instant. I have written to him to march upon Astorga as soon as his corps is equipped. With the infantry which marched from this direct upon Almeida and Ciudad Rodrigo, I shall not advance beyond Salamanca; until the corps under Baird and Hope approach Astorga and Espinar, but shall collect them in Almeida, Ciudad Rodrigo, and Salamanca. This, at least, is my intention at present; and I shall consider myself fortunate if they reach those places before the first rains, which, in general, last six or eight days, and fall so heavy, that, during their continuance, the troops must halt."

Early obstacles were experienced, from a want of *money*, (which was *throughout* the case,) from a difficulty of obtaining provisions, from the badness of roads, and from the ignorance of the Portuguese themselves on this latter point. It was afterward discovered that the representation respecting the roads through the north of Portugal was erroneous; and that the important delay, which subsequently arose in the junction of General Hope with the Commander in Chief, might have been avoided by his column having marched with the rest of the army.

army. As to provisions, 'it was found that the whole army could not be subsisted on the road by Elvas; no magazines having been formed for such a body of troops. When the Spanish Commissary General was consulted on this subject, and when the quantity of meat required by the British army was explained to him, he computed, that were they to be supplied with the rations specified, in three months all the oxen would be consumed, and very few hogs would be left in the country.'

On the general question, moreover, of the abilities and energy of the Spaniards themselves, an unfavourable idea was soon communicated by Lord William Bentinck, who had been residing in Spain on a diplomatic mission. 'In a dispatch about the beginning of October, he observes with a melancholy presage: "I am every moment more and more convinced, that a blind confidence in their own strength, and natural slowness, are the rocks upon which this good ship runs the risk of being wrecked."

An English officer, Captain Whittingham, also writes thus to Lord W. B.;

"Head Quarters, Calahorra, 28th Oct. 1808.

"On the 25th General Castanos left this place for Logrono. We arrived about four in the evening. The army of Castile was drawn up to receive the General. Its strength about 11,000 men. But to form any idea of its composition, it is absolutely necessary to have seen it. It is a compelete mass of miserable peasantry, without cloathing, without organization, and with few Officers that deserve the name.

"The General and principal Officers have not the least confidence in their troops; and, what is yet worse, the men have no confidence in themselves.

"This is not an exaggerated picture; it is a true portrait," &c. &c.'

On the 8th of November, Sir John arrived at Almeida, and on the 13th with his advanced guard at Salamanca; and a few hours afterwards he wrote a letter to Lord W. Bentinck at Madrid, in which we find these remarkable passages:

"I have no objection to you, or Mr. Frere, representing the necessity of as many more British troops as you think proper. It is certain, that the agents, which our Government have hitherto employed, have deceived them. For affairs here are by no means in the flourishing state they are represented and believed to be in England; and the sooner the truth is known in England, the better. But you must observe, my Lord, that whatever is critical must now be decided by the troops which are here; the French, I suspect, are ready, and will not wait. I differ only with you in one point;—when you say, the chief and great obstacle and resistance to the French will be afforded by the English Army. If that be so, Spain

is

is lost. The English Army, I hope, will do all which can be expected from their numbers; but the safety of Spain depends upon the union of its inhabitants, their enthusiasm in their cause, and in their firm and devoted determination to die, rather than submit to the French; nothing short of this will enable them to resist the formidable attack about to be made upon them. If they will adhere, our aid can be of the greatest use to them; but, if not, we shall soon be out-numbered, were our force quadrupled.

"I am, therefore, much more anxious to see exertion and energy in the Government, and enthusiasm in their Armies, than to have my force augmented.—The moment is a critical one—my own situation is particularly so—I have never seen it otherwise;—but I have pushed into Spain at all hazards;—this was the order of my Government—and it was the will of the people of England. I shall endeavour to do my best, hoping that all the bad that may happen, will not happen; but that with a share of bad, we shall also have a portion of good fortune."

With regard to Mr. Frere, it is observed by the Editor:

'Mr. Frere arrived at Aranjuez at the beginning of November, as Minister Plenipotentiary of Great Britain. He of course superseded Lord William Bentinck and Mr. Stuart; who, from having resided some time in Spain, and from personal qualifications, had got acquainted with many of the leading men, and had acquired a clear insight into the state of affairs.

'Mr. Frere unfortunately had acquired his notions of Spanish politics in London; and his prepossessions were much too strong to be effaced by the observations of his predecessors, or even to be altered by the most opposing facts.'

Consistently with this representation, so early as Nov. 13, Mr. Frere writes in reply: 'The fixed spirit of resistance which, without calculation of danger or of means, seems to have rooted itself in the minds of the people, appears superior to any reverses.'

Nov. 19, Sir J. Moore again addresses Mr. Frere, and his letter contains these paragraphs:

"The scenes which Colonel Graham describes, in his letters, as passing at the Head Quarters of the Central Army, are deplorable. The imbecility of the Spanish Government exceeds belief. The good-will of the inhabitants, whatever it may be, is of little use whilst there exists no ability to bring it into action.

"I am in communication with no one Spanish army; nor am I acquainted with the intentions of the Spanish Government, or of any of its Generals. Castanos, with whom I was put in correspondence, is deprived of his command at the moment I might have expected to hear from him; and La Romana, with whom I suppose I am now to correspond (for it has not been officially communicated to me) is absent — God knows where. In the mean time the French are within four marches of me, whilst my army is only assembling

sembling: in what numbers they are, I cannot learn. No channels of intelligence have been opened to me; and I have not been long enough in the country to procure them myself. I state these particulars to you. I wish it were in my power to go myself to Aranjuez, or Madrid, to represent them; for really if things are to continue in this state, the ruin of the Spanish cause, and the defeat of their armies, is inevitable; and it will become my duty to consider alone the safety of the British army, and to take steps to withdraw it from a situation, where, without the possibility of doing good, it is exposed to certain defeat."

Similar representations were made to Lord Castlereagh in a dispatch of the 24th; and it is remarked;

"Your Lordship must be prepared to hear that we have failed; for situated as we are, success cannot be commanded by any efforts we can make, if the Enemy are prepared to oppose us. I am without a shilling of money to pay the army their subsistence, and I am in daily apprehension that from the want of it, our supplies will be stopped. The 500,000 dollars your Lordship mentions, Sir David Baird considered as sent to him; he detained them, and has nearly expended them. The money which it is possible to procure at Madrid and in other towns of Spain is quite trifling, and it is impossible to describe the embarrassment we are thrown into from the want of this essential article; nothing but abundance of money, and prompt payments, will compensate, when we begin to move, for the want of experience and ability of our Commissariat."

In a private letter to one of his brothers, dated the 26th, the state of his mind is thus expressed:

"Upon entering Spain I have found affairs in a very different state from what I expected, or from what they are thought to be in England.

"I am in a scrape from which God knows how I am to extricate myself. But, instead of Salamanca, this army should have been assembled at Seville. The poor Spaniards deserve a better fate, for they seem a fine people; but have fallen into hands who have lost them by their apathy and ******.'—

"Pray for me that I may make right decisions: if I make bad ones, it will not be for want of consideration.

"I sleep little, it is now only five in the morning; and I have concluded, since I got up, this long letter.'

Sir David Baird's sentiments thus appear in a letter to the General in Chief, dated Astorga, Nov. 23:

"As it could never be intended by the British Government that our army should engage in the defence of this Country unaided and unsupported by any Spanish force, I confess, my dear Sir John, I begin to be at a loss to discover an object at this moment in Spain: it being very evident that the Spaniards are not at this moment in a situation to be capable of assembling a force competent to offer any serious resistance to the progress of the French arms."

At

At this period, Sir John also writes in his Journal:

"I see my situation as clearly as any one, that nothing can be worse; for I have no Spanish army to give me the least assistance, only the Marquis Romana is endeavouring to assemble the fugitives from Blake's army at Leon.

"Yet I am determined to form the junction of this army, and to try our fortune. We have no business here as things are: but, being here, it would never do to abandon the Spaniards without a struggle."

A want of necessary and accurate information was severely felt by all the British officers, civil and military; and Mr. Frere (from Aranjuez, Nov. 25.) explicitly states this grievance, which he ascribes 'in part to mistaken notions of secrecy and mystery,' in part to 'a jealousy of Great Britain,' and 'most of all to the confusion of their own system of intelligence, or more properly speaking, want of system.'—Blake's army had now been dispersed, and the French were threatening Madrid.

The several columns of British troops not having yet assembled together, Sir John writes again on the 27th Nov. to Mr. Frere; repeating his sentiments on the cheerless prospect of affairs, and observing: "This is a state of things quite different from that conceived by the British Government, when they determined to send troops to the assistance of Spain."

"It becomes, therefore, a question, whether the British Army should remain to be attacked in its turn, or retire from a country where the contest, from whatever circumstances, has become unequal.

"I wish to throw no responsibility off myself, which properly belongs to me.

"The question is not purely a military one. It belongs at least as much to you, as to me, to decide upon it. Your communications with the Spanish Government, and the opportunities you have had of judging of the general state of the Country, enable you to form as just an estimate of the resistance that is likely to be offered.

"You are, perhaps, better acquainted with the views of the British Cabinet; and the question is, What would that Cabinet direct, were they upon the spot to determine? It is of much importance that this should be thoroughly considered; it is comparatively of very little, on whom shall rest the greatest share of responsibility. I am willing to take the whole, or a part; but I am very anxious to know your opinion.

"The movements of the French give us little time for discussion."

On the 28th, the General received accounts of the defeat of the Spanish army under Castanos, and consequently decided on retreating to the banks of the Tagus. He sent orders to Sir D. Baird to retire on Corunna, and to Gen. Hope to join

him (Sir J. M.) by forced marches, at Salamanca or at Ciudad Rodrigo; remarking,

"After due consideration, I have determined to give the thing up, and to retire. It was my wish to have run great risks to fulfil what I conceive to be the wishes of the people of England, and to give every aid to the Spanish cause; but they have shewn themselves equal to do so little for themselves—their two principal armies having allowed themselves to be thus beaten and dispersed without almost an effort — it would only be sacrificing the Army without doing any good to Spain, to oppose it to such numbers as must now be brought against us: besides, I take for granted, a junction with Baird is out of the question; and, perhaps, with you, problematical; as there must be troops at Burgos, which must now push on to intercept us.'

Here the Editor observes:

'It thus appears that Sir John More took the resolution of retreating, without waiting for Mr. Frere's answer to his letter of the 27th. The defeat of Castanos totally altered the question; and the situation of the Army admitted of no delay. For, if Buonaparte should detach his most advanced corps against the British, General Hope might possibly be intercepted, and Sir David Baird might be hotly pursued, and suffer loss in the embarkation.

'He then assembled the General Officers, and shewed them the intelligence he had received, and the plan he had adopted. He told the Generals, "that he had not called them together to request their counsel, or to induce them to commit themselves by giving any opinion upon the subject. He took the responsibility entirely upon himself; and he only required that they would immediately prepare for carrying it into effect."

'It ought to be mentioned, that the idea of retreating was very generally disapproved of at Salamanca by the Army. The murmurs against it from Officers of rank were heard in every quarter. Even the Staff Officers of Sir John Moore's family lamented it; and, for the first time, doubted the wisdom of his decision. He, however, afterwards learnt, that General Hope agreed with him completely on this, as on all other points.'

December 2, Sir J. Moore was supplied with various information, all tending to represent affairs in a better light, chiefly on the authority of Don Tomas Morla, whose treachery was afterward manifested; together with letters from Mr. Frere, strongly expressing his dissent from the opinion of the General, and urging farther efforts in favour of the common cause. Other encouraging accounts were shortly transmitted; Madrid was stated to be firm in its determination and active in its preparations to resist the enemy; the Junta sent, through the Prince of Castelfranco and Don T. Morla, pressing solicitations to Sir John Moore for his aid; and Mr. Frere again wrote, reiterating his

his persuasions, and renewing his request for a change in Sir John's measures:

"I have no hesitation (he says) in taking upon myself any degree of responsibility which may attach itself to this advice. As I consider the fate of Spain as depending absolutely for the present upon the decision which you may adopt. I say *for the present*, for such is the spirit and character of the country, that, even if abandoned by the British, I should by no means despair of their ultimate success.'

Duly considering all these statements, (which appeared to come from the best authority, but which have since proved to be entirely deceptive*,) and reflecting that his instructions from the British Government commanded him to receive the requisitions and representations of the Spanish Junta and the British Minister at Madrid "with the utmost deference and attention," Sir John Moore rescinded his former determination, and wrote to Sir David Baird to stop his retreat, and return to Astorga.

In the mean time, Mr. Frere sent to Sir John the memorable letter of which Colonel de Charmilly was the bearer, requiring that this gentleman should be examined by a Council of War, *to give* (in fact) *evidence in opposition to the views and resolves of the Commander in Chief*. The General's answer is inserted in the present volume, and deserves the Editor's epithets of 'calm and dignified:'—but we must hasten onward.

On the 4th Inst. General Hope's division effected a junction with the main-army. Sir John now took measures for making a movement on Zamora and Toro, that he might approximate himself to the corps of Sir David Baird and the Marquis de la Romana, and that he might threaten the communication between Madrid and France. Madrid had capitulated on the 3d December, but the British General was uninformed of its entire submission.

Dec. 12. a private dispatch to Lord Castlereagh was written, in which we find this paragraph:

"I fear that Mr. Frere is infinitely more sanguine upon the subject of Spain than I am. This is to be regretted, as it renders it more embarrassing for you to come to a decision upon the measure to be pursued. I have seen no ability with the Spanish Government, but much the reverse: none has been displayed by their officers in the command of the armies; no one officer has yet a chief direction of the military branch; the armies have shewn no resolution, the people no enthusiasm, nor no daring spirit; and that which has not been shewn

* Morla and his associates were actually negociating for the surrender of Madrid, when they wrote in the name of the Junta, to the British General, urging his continued co-operation.

hitherto,

hitherto, I know not why it should be expected to be displayed hereafter. I feel as if the British was the only efficient force in Spain. Your Lordship will consider with what view it was originally sent; whether in aid of an enthusiastic brave people, capable of fighting their own battles, or to contend alone with France, and retrieve the affairs of a beaten disorganized nation. We have had now some proof of the efforts of which Spain is capable; and we can judge by the resistance they have made, whether they have fought with that spirit and obstinacy of a people ardent for the independence of their country. It is certainly right for your Lordship to consider well these matters, that you may be able to estimate justly the aid which is to be expected in this struggle from the Spanish nation, and decide to what amount the British Army should be reinforced, or, if not reinforced, what measures it should follow. The French force in Spain may fairly be set down at 80,000 men*, besides what is in Catalonia; the British at 27 or 28,000, including the regiments coming from Portugal. The French expect considerable reinforcements. The armies which the Spaniards had formed have been beaten and dispersed, and are again collecting. This, my Lord, is, I believe, the true statement; and I leave your Lordship to throw into the scale what portion of enthusiasm, resolution, and ability, you think we have a right to expect from the specimen already given."

On the 14th, the head quarters were at Alaejos, and on the 15th at Toro. On the 20th, Sir J. M. reached Majorga, and was joined by Sir David Baird.

'The British army were now united; and, independent of some small detachments left to keep up the communications, it amounted to 23,000 infantry, and 2000 two or three hundred cavalry. The Head Quarters were at Majorga, but the cavalry and horse-artillery were advanced to Monastero Melgar Abaxo, within three leagues of Sahagun; where it was understood that near 700 of the Enemy's cavalry were posted.'

The Head quarters were established at Sahagun on the 21st. All information, on which reliance could be placed, still displayed the conduct of the Spanish Juntas, and the situation of their troops, in the most discouraging light: but Sir John now determined on making an attack on the enemy, under Marshal Soult, at Saldana, and concerted measures with the Marquis Romana for that purpose. Writing to Mr. Frere on the 23d, he concludes by observing,

"The movement I am making is of the most dangerous kind. I not only risk to be surrounded every moment by superior forces, but to have my communication intercepted with the Galicias. I

'* Sir J. Moore's intelligence, particularly that obtained through the Spanish Government, was often imperfect. Instead of 80,000, he should have said 150,000.'

wish

wish it to be apparent to the whole world, as it is to every individual of the army, that we have done every thing in our power in support of the Spanish cause; and that we do not abandon it, until long after the Spaniards had abandoned us."

In the course of this day, however, 'messenger after messenger brought unpleasant reports;' information was received that the enemy was advancing from Madrid; and Sir John Moore 'perceived that his movement and design were discovered by Bonaparte, who was now marching a superior force against him. This was what he had all along expected, and was prepared for.—The forward march of the troops was instantly countermanded.' The General also directly wrote to Romana, and thus states his intentions:

"Your Excellency knows my object, in marching in this direction, was to endeavour to free you from a troublesome neighbour, and to strike a blow at a corps of the Enemy, whilst it was still imagined that the British troops had retreated into Portugal. I was aware of the risk I ran, if I should be discovered, and the Enemy push on a corps between me and my communication.

"My movement has, in some degree, answered its object, as it has drawn the Enemy from other projects, and will give the South more time to prepare. With such a force as mine, I can pretend to do no more. It would only be losing this army to Spain and to England, to persevere in my march on Soult; who, if posted strongly, might wait, or, if not, would retire and draw me on until the corps from Madrid got behind me: in short, single-handed, I cannot pretend to contend with the superior numbers the French can bring against me.

"I received your Excellency's letter at six, and the troops were to have marched from this to Carrion at eight this evening. I countermanded them, and shall take immediate measures for retiring on Astorga. There I shall stand; as my retreat thence, if necessary, will be secure. I shall be in the way to receive the supplies and the reinforcements which I expect from England. At the worst, I can maintain myself, and, with your Excellency's aid, defend the Galicias, and give time for the formation of the armies of the South, and that which you command to be prepared, when a joint effort may be made, which can alone be efficacious. It is playing the Enemy's game to draw him to attack our armies in rotation."

Here the Editor interposes some additional remarks and information:

'It is now requisite to point out the plan which was adopted by Buonaparte. The particulars were disclosed by his movements; but exact information has also been obtained through Major Napier of the 50th regiment. This Officer at the battle of Corunna was stabbed in the body by a bayonet, and wounded in the head by a sword, yet he defended his life till quarter was promised him. When a prisoner he was treated most handsomely by the Duke of Dalmatia.

Dalmatia (Soult). He dined with Marshal Ney frequently, who as well as General La Borde, the Chief of l'Etat Major, and other officers of rank, frankly told him the design and sentiments of the Emperor. When Buonaparte received intelligence that the British were moving to the Douro, he said, "Moore is the only General now fit to contend with me; I shall advance against him in person."

'Orders were then sent to the Duke of Dalmatia to give way, if attacked, and to decoy the British to Burgos, or as far Eastward as possible; and at the same time to push on a corps towards Leon, on their left flank. And should they attempt to retreat, he was ordered to impede this by every means in his power. The corps on the road to Badajos was stopt, and ordered to proceed towards Salamanca; while he himself moved rapidly with all the disposable force at Madrid, and the Escurial, directly to Benavente. Neither Buonaparte nor any of his Generals had the least doubt of surrounding the British with between 60 and 70,000 men before they could reach Galicia.

'Sir John Moore, as appears both by his letters and his conduct, saw clearly the whole of this plan: he had prepared for the danger; calculated the time; and has acquired the glory of being the first General who has frustrated Buonaparte.'

Here is the material point in the history of this unfortunate campaign. The General now seriously determined on withdrawing, and commenced measures for effecting that retreat which ended in the embarkation at Corunna; which has been praised by some as conducted with the most eminent skill, firmness, and perseverance; and which has been censured by others as injudicious and unwarrantably severe in its rapidity. On the melancholy effects of it, as sustained by the troops while on march, we shall not dwell in our abstracted narrative: but it is essential to state the principle on which it was directed, and the position of the enemy by which it was induced. The Editor represents that

'The Duke of Dalmatia received strong reinforcements from the 22nd to the 24th; so that his army alone was much superior to the British. It was posted behind the river Carrion, between Carrion and Saldana.

'The Duke of Abrantes had advanced from Burgos to Palentia, and threatened the right flank of the British.

'Buonaparte pushed on the corps at the Escurial, and marched from Madrid on the 18th in person, with an army consisting of 32,000 infantry and 8000 cavalry. The advanced guard of this cavalry passed through Tordesillas on the 24th; the same day the van of the British left Sahagun; and both moved to the same point —Benavente.

'There was another corps on the road to Badajos commanded by the Duke of Dantzic; this had advanced to Talavera de la Reina; and had pushed on as far as Arzo-Bispo, in pursuit of the Spanish General Galuzo. This was likewise counter-marched, and was directed

rected towards Salamanca. Even the division under the Duke of Treviso, which was proceeding to Saragossa, was stopt; and the long meditated vengeance against that heroic city was deferred.

'In fine, the whole disposable force of the French army, forming an irregular crescent, was marching in radii with rapid steps to environ the British. To accomplish this favourite object, Buonaparte stopt his victorious career to the South, where there was nothing capable of resisting him'—

'Sir John Moore's first object was to pass the river Elsar without interruption. There are three routes across this river: the first is by Mansilla, where there is a good bridge; the second is by Valencia where there was only a ferry; and the third is by Castro Gonsalo, where there is also a bridge; this last road leads to Benavente. It was impossible to go by Mansilla, as the Marquis of Romana's troops were there, and the country was completely exhausted by them. There were great objections to the whole army attempting the passage by the ferry at Valencia: for the intelligence received was, that the river was rapidly increasing, so that the ford would probably be too deep, and the boats were few. These circumstances would render the passage of the whole army very tedious at this point. And besides, an adequate supply of food could not be found; nor could covering, which was necessary at this season, be had for the whole army on one route.

'It was, however, quite requisite to secure Valencia to stop the Enemy. Sir David Baird was, therefore, directed to take that route; and it was resolved that the rest of the army should proceed by Castro Gonsalo.

'By this division of the army also the magazines and stores, which were deposited at Benavente and Zamora, were effectually covered.'

These movements were effected according to the General's orders, and on the 27th. his head quarters were established at Benavente. On the 29th, the British dragoons had a skirmish with some French cavalry under General Lefebvre, who was taken; and from the prisoners it was learnt that Bonaparte slept the preceding night at Villalpando, *only four leagues from Benavente.*—To prevent being turned by the enemy, and on account of the scarcity of provisions, the Commander detached General Craufurd with 3000 light troops to Orense, on the road to Vigo; and the rest of the army proceeded to Astorga, where Sir D. Baird's column was again united to it.

'It is known (says the Editor) that Buonaparte had fully expected to have reached Benavente as soon as, or before, the British; and the Duke of Dalmatia hoped, that they would be so much retarded by Buonaparte's attacks, that he might, by forced marches through Leon, precede them at Astorga. The little resistance made by the Spaniards at Mansilla, and the immediate submission of Leon, facilitated this plan. Had either been in time, the British would have been surrounded. But Buonaparte was anticipated in both

both his projects; and, while a part of his cavalry was repulsed by Lord Paget, the van of the British Army, under General Fraser, entered and secured Astorga.'

A dispatch of the 31st to Lord Castlereagh thus represents affairs:

"With respect to me, my Lord, and the British troops, it has come to that point which I have long foreseen. Abandoned from the beginning by every thing Spanish, we were equal to nothing by ourselves. From a desire to do what I could, I made the movement against Soult. As a diversion it has answered completely; but, as there is nothing to take advantage of it, I have risked the loss of the army for no purpose. I have no option now but to fall down to the coast as fast as I am able. I found no provision here: the little which has been collected had been consumed by Sir David's corps in their passage; and there is not two days' bread to carry the army to Villa-franca. I have been forced to push on the troops by divisions, without stopping'—'There is no means of carriage: the people run away, the villages are deserted; and I have been obliged to destroy great part of the ammunition and military stores. For the same reason I am obliged to leave the sick. In short, my sole object is to save the army. We must all make forced marches to the coast, from the scarcity of provisions, and to be before the enemy; who, by roads upon our flanks, may otherwise intercept us."

The troops now proceeded to Villa Franca, the French cavalry constantly hanging on their rear, and frequent skirmishes occurring.

'When Buonaparte reached Astorga he was joined by the Duke of Dalmatia. The whole army that was assembled there amounted to near 70,000 men, independently of other corps, which were countermanded from their former destination, though not yet come up. It is natural to imagine that a man so accustomed to succeed in all his plans must have been bitterly disappointed to find that, notwithstanding his exertions, the British were beyond his reach. He here reviewed this immense force; and perceiving, by the masterly arrangements of his enemy, that it was no longer possible to intercept him, he halted to watch the event. Three Marshals of France, with as many divisions, were commanded to follow the British closely, and to destroy them, either before or during their embarkation. And some other corps followed those divisions, to support them.'

At Lugo, Sir John Moore determined to offer battle to the French, the ground being favourable, and he conceiving it to be desirable to fight the enemy there, rather than suffer his troops to be continually harassed on their march: but Marshal Soult seemed not to relish the dispositions which he found made by Sir J. M., and nothing more than skirmishes took place. The retreat of the British was therefore continued to

Corunna; and from this place the General once more addresses Lord Castlereagh, and observes:

"Your Lordship knows that had I followed my own opinion as a military man, I should have retired with the army from Salamanca. The Spanish armies were then beaten; there was no Spanish force to which we could unite; and I was satisfied that no efforts would be made to aid us, or favour the cause in which they were engaged. I was sensible, however, that the apathy and indifference of the Spaniards would never have been believed; that, had the British been withdrawn, the loss of the cause would have been imputed to their retreat; and it was necessary to risk this army to convince the people of England, as well as the rest of Europe, that the Spaniards had neither the power, nor the inclination, to make any efforts for themselves.

"It was for this reason that I marched to Sahagun. As a diversion it succeeded: I brought the whole disposable force of the French against this army, and it has been allowed to follow it, without a single movement being made to favour its retreat."*

We refrain at present from all farther details of this march, of the partial actions that enlivened it, and of the general action at Corunna which terminated the life of the gallant Commander. Our immediate object has been to exhibit the essential movements and determinations made by Sir John Moore, with the reasons and motives by which he was instigated; and we have brought our detail sufficiently near to the close of the transaction. Though, however, we have gone through it at some length, we have been forced to pass unnoticed a great variety of statements which are not unimportant in the question; and a large portion of those instances of want of energy, of capacity, of information, of activity, and of hearty co-operation, on the part of the Spaniards, which contributed to form the decision of the British General. We have also been obliged to glance

* This is the letter which was so much required by and at length submitted to Parliament, but with omissions, which are not here supplied. The Editor subjoins the following note on this subject:

'In this dispatch there are several omissions, owing to the following circumstance:

'In the month of March last, the Secretary of State for the War Department sent for the Author, and informed him, that it was the intention of Administration to accede to laying this letter before Parliament; which, however, being a private letter, and not written in the usual manner of official dispatches, it was thought proper to omit some passages which his Lordship would point out. The Author replied, that he could not presume to object to any omissions which did not affect his brother's reputation. After this conversation it was judged improper to fill up the blanks. One passage at the beginning, however, it was considered, might be restored, where mention is made of the Honourable Brigadier-General Stewart, brother to Lord Castlereagh.'

but

but slightly at the unfortunate difference of opinion which prevailed between Mr. Frere and Sir John Moore, and at the still more prejudicial want of openness and of accuracy in the communication of intelligence from the former to the latter. On these points, the curiosity of the public has been not a little excited; and materials for ample satisfaction seem to be furnished in this volume.

We confess that it strikes us, from a view of the developement afforded by this work, that the conduct of Sir John Moore was justified by appearances, and by the result; and we think also that subsequent events, to the present moment, confirm his opinions and substantiate his measures. If his decision, then, was right, not only is great praise due to his sagacity, but it must be admitted that his consequent movements are in the highest degree indicative of his military skill and of his firmness. Leaving the present representation, however, to the judgment of our readers, we shall now close the subject; to which we must speedily return, in order to take notice of various other publications relative to it which have appeared.

A portrait of Sir John Moore, a view and a plan of the battle of Corunna, and a map of Spain and Portugal, with the marches of the British columns, illustrate the volume.

ART. X. *History of the Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres*; containing the most accurate Details relative to the Topography, History, Commerce, Population, Government, &c. &c. of that valuable Colony. By Samuel Hull Wilcocke. Illustrated with Plates. 8vo. pp. 576. 12s. 6d. Boards. Symonds; Black and Co., &c.

OUR temporary possession of the city of Buenos Ayres, and the general expectation that we were to succeed to the permanent rule of the vast colony dependent on that government, seem to have occasioned the British public to be enriched with the valuable information which the pages before us communicate. As to the materials out of which this volume has been formed, the author intimates that he obtained them in consequence of having been engaged in extensive mercantile pursuits, which had relation to the Spanish colonies in South America. The value of the knowlege, also, which is here imparted, is enhanced by the difficulty of obtaining it. Most of our readers are aware of the disappointment which Dr. Robertson experienced in his application for this purpose.

On this subject it is stated by Mr. Wilcocke;

'The papers regarding America, which are deposited amongst the records of the Spanish monarchy in the *archivo* of Simancas, near Valladolid, 120 miles from the seat of government, are stated to be so numerous as to fill the largest apartment in the archivo, and to com-

pose eight hundred and seventy-three large bundles. Yet this treasure of historical and colonial knowledge is wholly inaccessible, and no admission into the archivo of Simancas is ever granted without a particular order from the king. Some years ago, however, the Spanish government seem to have relaxed, in some degree, from so much of their illiberal system, as to have given access to these archives to Don Antonio Munoz, then occupied in compiling a work called an History of the New World. Of this only one volume was completed, and Munoz was interrupted in the prosecution of his work; which contains some strictures upon the colonial policy of Spain, by which, probably, he gave offence to the council of the Indies. He was debarred from all further access to the necessary documents, and interdicted from publishing any more of his history. Munoz is since dead, and the undertaking has perished with him.

'That this system of concealment, than which nothing can be more illiberal, still predominates in the Spanish councils, is proved by a recent instance. The celebrated navigator Malespina, who, from the years 1792 to 1795, was employed by Spain to explore the Pacific Ocean, and her colonies washed by its waves, was, soon after his return to Cadiz, arrested and thrown into prison, as was the *padre Gil*, an ecclesiastic of a liberal and enlightened mind, who had undertaken the compilation of the voyage. All the papers and drawings belonging to the expedition were seized, and the botanists and other men of science, who accompanied Malespina, received orders to suspend their labours. Though part of the narrative was actually printed, the impression was suppressed; and the details of that interesting voyage are buried, as so many others have before been, amongst the dusty archives, and in the mouldy recesses of the Spanish chancery.'

With regard to the contents and arrangement of the volume, the writer gives this summary:

'After a few preliminary observations respecting the aboriginal population of America, the sources whence it has been conjectured to be derived, and the physical peculiarities of that part of the globe; an enumeration will be given of all the Spanish possessions, and their geographical and political divisions; and the attention of the reader will be more particularly directed to that portion now under consideration. A brief notice of the first discovery of the river La Plata, will be followed by such accounts as have come down to us relative to the appearance, the government, the customs, and the propensities, of the Indians who were found in the country on its first occupation by the Spaniards. Their religion, their language, and their arts, will all pass in review

'The grand features of the country will form one of the objects of consideration.

'The natural productions occupy the next place.

'After a general account of the country, a short history will be entered into of the first discovery of the river La Plata, of its original settlers, and progressive conquerors; of the gradual extension of discovery and conquest by which the province of Buenos Ayres came at length to border upon the dominions which the valour and ferocity of Pizarro

Pizarro and his companions had gained for Spain upon the shores of the Great South Sea; after this will follow a brief account of the rise, the progress, and the dissolution of the famous establishments of the Jesuits in Paraguay, forming an *imperium in imperio*, unparalleled in the annals of the world. The historical account of the colony will be brought down to the present time, and concluded by a narrative of the late capture of it by the British.

'The cities, the harbours, the forts, the settlements, and the missions scattered over the country, will be next described; and proceeding from these to the plains, the agriculture both of the natives and of their Spanish masters, will be noticed, together with their arts and manufactures.

'An entire chapter will be devoted to the important subject of commerce. The trade as carried on between Buenos Ayres and Spain; that with Africa; the contraband trade with the Portuguese in Brazil, and with the North Americans who frequent those seas; and the interior commerce between Peru and Chili, and the river La Plata, will be detailed. The various articles that are suited for the consumption of the country, and those produced, or found there calculated for exportation, will be enumerated and described. Sketches will be given of some commercial adventures connected with the colony of Buenos Ayres, proposed to the enterprising spirit of British Merchants; and some latent commercial advantages to be derived from this colony will be pointed out to the nation.

'The Spanish colonial government, their civil and military establishments, their fiscal regulations, the revenues of the colony, &c. will next appear in rotation. The state of society, the manners, the customs, and religious ceremonies, as well of the Spaniards, as of the creoles, the Indians, the negroes, the mulattoes, the mestices, and the infinite ramifications of colour and of cast, arising from the intermixture of these various races, will be followed by an account of those unsubdued Indians, who are occasionally allies or enemies of their European neighbours, and who rove over the trackless plains that extend from Paraguay to the straits of Magellan.'

In treating of the geographical divisions of South America, Mr. W. says;

'The Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres is the most extensive, as well as, in many respects, the most important, of all. It extends in a direct line from Cape Lobos, which may be taken as its southern boundary, to the farthest northern settlements on the Paraguay, upwards of sixteen hundred miles; and from Cape St. Anthony, at the mouth of the Plata to the ridge of mountains that separate it from Chili, nearly one thousand miles. By the union to it of the provinces of Charcas and Chiquito, it forms a compact body of land, nearly square; and stretches through all the variety of climates to be found in six and twenty degrees of latitude. Its general boundaries are, Amazonia, or the country of the independent Indians of the river Amazon and its vicinity, on the north; Brazil and the Atlantic Ocean on the east; Patagonia on the south; and Peru and Chili on the west.'

Under the head of Rivers, which form so magnificent a feature in this country, the Rio de la Plata first attracts notice; and the author's account of that grand stream thus commences:

'The RIO DE LA PLATA, or *River of Silver*, was originally called the *River of De Solis*, from its first discoverer; but Sebastian Cabot, who first penetrated beyond the junctions of the Parana and the Paraguay, having defeated a body of Indians on the banks of the latter, obtained a considerable booty in gold and silver, whence he bestowed upon the river the pompous appellation which has since prevailed, and which has led many to believe that the precious metals are to be met with in abundance on its banks. It is, however, stated, that the treasure found in the possession of those Indians, was that which they had, in their turn, taken from Alexis de Garcia, a Portuguese, who, some years before, had penetrated from Brazil to the frontiers of Peru, and was killed, on his return with the plunder he had collected. The name, though thus originating in mistake, was too flattering to the ambitious cupidity with which the new world was regarded by the adventurers of Europe, to be easily superseded. It has been perpetuated, whilst the name of the first discoverer has been relegated to a few hills yet called the Sierra de Solis, on the northern shore of its entrance. The distinctive appellation of Rio de la Plata, however, though intended by Cabot for the whole of the majestic stream he had in part ascended, is now only applied to the channel, through which the great body of water formed by the confluence of the Parana, the Paraguay, and the Uruguay, flows into the ocean, forming an æstuary of fresh water, without parallel in the rest of the globe for width and magnificence.'

How much the late wretched government of old Spain counteracted the benificent designs of nature, the reader will be able to form a judgment from this representation of the country:

'The immense plains that extend in almost uninterrupted continuity from the banks of the Plata to Chili, and to the large rivers of Patagonia, claim particular attention. They present a sea of waving grass extending for nine hundred miles, with very few interruptions of wood or eminence. The succulent and nutritive herbage of this tract, affords pasture to those innumerable herds of cattle that rove unowned and unvalued over a great portion of South America, and whose hides and tallow alone are occasionally sought after by the Spanish hunters, and form a principal article of the trade of Buenos Ayres. Wild horses, the progeny of those imported by the Spaniards, likewise abound in these natural meads. They wander from place to place, against the current of the winds: and a traveller has stated that they are in such numbers, that, being in those plains for the space of three weeks, he was continually surrounded by them. Sometimes they passed by, in thick troops on full speed for two or three hours together, during which time, he says, it was with great

difficulty, that the party preserved themselves from being run over and trampled to pieces. At other times, however, the same country has been passed over, and no horses have been seen.

'Near the Spanish settlements, and where these plains have been tilled, they yield excellent corn, and various other productions; whilst numerous flocks of sheep are also met with in the plains at the foot of the mountains of Cordova and Yacanto. Between these hills and the Cordillera of Chili, lie many spacious and fruitful vallies, watered by brooks and rivulets, and beautifully diversified with rising grounds. They produce many kinds of fruit-trees, apples, peaches, cherries, and plumbs; and also corn where the land is cultivated; but they are more particularly famous for breeding cattle, sheep, and horses, and especially mules. Of the mules yearly sent from these provinces to Peru, the greatest part comes from the district just described. There are many farms here belonging to those industrious Spaniards who have been allured hither, by the fertility of the soil, by the facility for breeding cattle, and by the security from the incursions of the Indians, who infest those only who live more to the south.'

The miserable defective policy of Spanish rule is elucidated by the curious itinerary from Buenos Ayres to Lima, which enriches this volume. The dangers of part of this journey, and which it is here shewn might be avoided, are such as stagger belief:

'When travellers pass over the lofty ridges of the Cordilleras, it is said, that from the rarefaction of the air, they can scarcely breathe, and are afflicted with nausea. This is one of the inconveniences they suffer, but it is of trifling import, when compared to the imminent danger they are exposed to in some of the narrow passes and steep declivities. The itinerary of the route from Buenos Ayres to Lima displays some of those dangers, which appear in tenfold array along the less frequented paths across the Cordillera. Their ruggedness is not easily described. In many places the road is so narrow that the mules have scarcely room to set their feet, and in others it is a continual series of precipices. These paths are full of holes from two to three feet deep, in which the mules set their feet, and draw their bellies and the rider's legs along the ground. Indeed these holes serve as steps, without which the precipices would, in a great measure, be impracticable; but should the creature happen to set his foot between two of these holes, or not place it right, the rider falls; and, if on the side of the precipice, inevitably perishes. The danger is, however, greater, where these holes, or camelones as the Spaniards call them, are wanting. For the tracks are extremely steep and slippery, in general chalky and wet; and where there are no holes to serve as steps, Indians are obliged to go before with small spades, which they carry with them for that purpose, to dig little trenches across the path. This work is continual, every party requiring a repetition of it, for in less than a night, the rain utterly destroys all the trenches cut during the preceding day. In descending these places, where there

there are no holes or trenches, and which are sometimes several hundred yards deep, the instinct of the mules that are accustomed to pass them, is admirable. They are sensible of the caution requisite in the descent. On coming to the top of an eminence, they stop, and having placed their fore feet close together, as in a posture of stopping themselves; they also put their hind feet together, but a little forwards as if going to lie down. In this attitude, having, as it were, taken a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. All the rider has to do is to keep himself fast in the saddle, without checking his beast; for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which case they must both unavoidably perish. The address of these creatures is here truly wonderful, for in this rapid motion, when they seem to have lost all government of themselves, they follow exactly the different windings of the path, as if they had before accurately reconnoitered, and previously settled in their minds, the route they were to follow, and taken every precaution for their safety, amidst so many irregularities. There would indeed otherwise be no possibility of travelling over such places, where the safety of the rider depends on the experience and address of his beast.'—

'There are indeed some places where these declivities are not on the sides of precipices; but the road is so narrow and hollow, and the sides so perpendicular, that the danger is almost equal; for the track being extremely confined, and scarcely wide enough to admit the mule with its rider; if the beast falls, the man must be crushed, or, for want of room to disengage himself, have a limb broken. It is really wonderful to observe the mules, after they have overcome the first emotions of fear, and are going to slide down the declivity, with what exactness they stretch out their fore legs, that by preserving a due equilibrium they may not fall on one side, yet, at a proper distance, make with their bodies, that gentle inclination necessary to follow the several windings of the path; as well as their address in stopping themselves at the end of their impetuous career. The human species could not shew more prudence or conduct than the mules do; and some of them, after being long used to these journies, acquire a kind of reputation for their skill and safety, and are accordingly highly valued.'

A very particular and detailed account of all the principal mines, which are worked in this colony, will be found in the present volume; and we should be glad to quote some of the passages, if we could gratify all our inclinations amid such variety. We cannot, however, refrain from subjoining parts of Mr. Wilcocke's description of two places which were not long since the subjects of conversation among us:

'Buenos Ayres was erected into a bishopric in 1620. Before its elevation into a viceroyalty, this city was only considered as the fourth in rank in South America; but it is now held as inferior to none but Lima. Since it thus became the seat of a new government, it has greatly increased in opulence and in population. It is regularly built, and its streets are broad, unpaved in the middle, and with footpaths

on each side. The houses are reckoned to be six thousand in number. Most of the buildings, both public and private, had formerly only mud walls, but a lay-brother of the Jesuits, who was employed to erect the church of his college about sixty years ago, made bricks and lime, and instructed the inhabitants in those useful arts, since which time the city has assumed a very different appearance. The architecture of the cathedral, and of most of the churches, is likewise ascribed to the lay-brothers of that community. The cathedral is spacious and elegant. It has a cupola of excellent workmanship, and a portico, the design and execution of which are much extolled. The interior is profusely, perhaps tawdrily, decorated with carved and gilt work. In the dome are paintings in copartments, representing the acts of the apostles. The churches of St. Francis, and that of the convent of Mercy, are next in estimation, and have cupolas and steeples nearly in the same style as the cathedral. In the church of the Franciscans, there is a picture of the Last Supper, painted by an Indian neophyte, of one of the Uraguay missions, which is considered as a very capital performance for a native artist: the frame of it is composed entirely of feathers of a bright gold colour, so artfully contrived as to appear to the nicest observer to be the most correct carving and gilding; nor can the difference be discovered till it is touched by the hand: this picture was a present to the Franciscans from the Jesuits, not many years before their expulsion. The church of St. John, which is on the skirts of the town, is appropriated to the Christian Indians. The town-hall, which stands on one side of the great square or parade, is a large and handsome building, likewise erected on a plan of the Jesuits. There are several convents and nunneries; and all these edifices are built of a beautiful white stone, which is found in a small plain not far from the town. The whiteness of the public buildings is much improved by the frequency of the Pampero, which is considered as an excellent bleacher. The principal streets are the *Calle del Santa Trinidada*, and the *Calle del San Benito*. The former, which faces the great door of the cathedral, runs almost the whole length of the town, and is occupied by the better sort of inhabitants. Many of the opulent inhabitants have villas in the country, and almost every house has a garden, both before and behind; and many have balconies with lattice-work, for the reception of odoriferous shrubs and flowers. The interior of the houses is, in general, however, very dirty, from the indolence of the inhabitants. In summer, the rooms are covered with fine Indian matting, and in winter with European carpets. Every garden is refreshed by water let in from the river Plata, by a kind of sluice made of osiers, woven very strong and thick. The water thus admitted, is sent by smaller channels round the beds, and a quantity of it is generally retained in a large basin or reservoir, of which there is one in every extensive garden. The water when thus retained, is very clear and sparkling, but by its great coldness, it is apt, when drank, to bring on dysenteries and other dangerous diseases. Part of the town, which is principally inhabited by mestices and negroes, has a very miserable and filthy appearance, and strongly contrasts with the opulence and taste displayed in the other.

The

'The inhabitants were usually estimated at about thirty thousand, but the calculation of Sir Home Popham carries them to the number seventy thousand. One fourth of the population are whites; the others are negroes, Indians, and people of mixed breed.

'The castle or fort is very insignificant, in point of military importance; it contains a house for the military governor, and a royal chapel. At the time of the capture, there were about forty cannon of various calibres, mounted; and two thousand stand of arms were found in it. The usual garrison was seven hundred men, and about three thousand of the militia of the country were supposed to be always in readiness to co-operate with the regulars.

'Buenos Ayres is well supplied with provisions, particularly with fish in great abundance, and variety, from the river. There is no place in Europe or America, where butcher's meat is more plentiful, better in quality, or cheaper in price; it is frequently distributed gratis to the poor, as it is the usual custom to buy the hide alone, the carcase being in some measure a gratuitous addition; and the meat is always fat and very palatable. Poultry, considering the price of other provisions, is very dear; a couple of fowls generally sell for as much as a whole ox. The river-water is rather muddy, but soon becomes clear and drinkable by being kept in large earthen vessels made for the purpose, or in the garden-reservoirs, as before mentioned. Wheat bread is sold at a rate, which makes it equal to about 7d. per English quartern loaf; and the price is fixed and permanent; the loaves are made to correspond in size with the different small coins of the country.'—

'*Montevideo* is the best, and indeed the only good port in this river. The Spaniards are sensible of the importance of this place, and have taken great pains to fortify it; having made it much stronger than Buenos Ayres. The entrance of the port is not very broad. The harbour derives its name from a high mountain on its western point, which may be seen at the distance of twelve, or even sixteen leagues.

'It is dangerous to sail too near to the western point, as there are many rocks under water. On the east side the entrance is deeper and safer. Beyond the western point there is a square battery built close to the water's edge. The bay is almost circular, and within it, on the east side, there is a small island abounding with rabbits. The surrounding land is very high, and protects the bay from all winds. The water is always as smooth as a mill-pond, and there is sufficient depth for ships of the first rate. The bottom is soft clay.

'The town of Montevideo occupies the whole of a peninsular promontory, that forms the eastern point of the harbour. The fortifications are to the north; they are regular works, built of stone, inclosing the whole of the peninsula, and have a pretty strong fort, with four bastions and mounted with brass cannon, in the centre; the barracks are bomb-proof. The garrison is generally about four or five hundred men. The other side of the bay is without any fortification, nor has the high mountain even so much as a watch-tower The town makes a handsome appearance from the harbour, as it is built upon an ascent, and the houses appear interspersed with gardens

dens and trees. The houses are of stone and brick, only one story high, except a few; the roofs are flat, and the floors of brick, though some have only earth. The governor's residence, which has been compared to a range of livery stables in England, is of such construction. Few houses have glass windows. There are some, however, that belong to people of distinction, which are two and three stories high, and have balconies in front. None have any chimnies; fire is generally kindled in the yard, or a separate kitchen, and in wet or cold weather it is brought into the rooms in fire-pans. The streets run strait, and cross each other at right angles, but with one or two exceptions are very incommodious, being composed of large loose stones and sand.'

The readers of this work will be highly gratified and instructed by the details which it contains respecting the famed settlements of the Jesuits in this colony, their origin, extent, and subversion. Howsoever mischievous may have been the agency of this society in Europe, we find that in South America its power arose from the tendency of its proceedings to advance the interests of humanity, and the extension of civilization.

If we pass over the statements and observations with which we are presented in these pages, relative to the civil and ecclesiastical administration of the Spanish colonies, the different classes of the inhabitants, the commercial regulations of the parent state, and their effects, it is not because we deem them to be unimportant, but because we have recently descanted on them in our review of Mr. Brougham's performance on colonization*; which they so much resemble, as to induce in us a belief that they have been taken from that able work, or that the two authors have drawn from the same sources. We are also precluded by our limits from entering on the curious detail of natural history, which adds to the interest and value of the volume; and some particulars of this kind were communicated from another publication, in our 53d Vol. N. S. p. 148. The author modestly admits and apologizes for the literary defects of his performance: but these are neither numerous nor considerable; and they are more than compensated by the value of the information which it communicates, and the good sense of the observations by which it is accompanied.

---

* See Rev. Vol. L. N. S. p. 1.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For SEPTEMBER, 1809.

NOVELS.

Art. 11. *Ned Bentley.* By J. Amphlett. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

MR. Amphlett adverts in his preface, with some acrimony, to the '*slovenly monthly catalogue*' in which novels are generally classed by Reviewers: but, judging of others from himself, he affirms that 'a novel writer enters the list of authors with his mind made up to receive every species of ill-usage, like an ill-used ass by the road side, who screws up his hide in expectation of receiving a blow from every person who goes near him.' After this humble though sturdy declaration, Mr. Amphlett proceeds to avow that he is 'content if his work be allowed to class among the least exceptionable ones of its kind;' and we shall proceed to inquire how far it may claim such a character.

If to contain nothing which can alarm the delicacy or offend the piety of the reader may constitute a novel 'unexceptionable,' the history of Ned Bentley is intitled to the negative praise to which its author aspires: but, though we feel some respect even for this sort of recommendation, we cannot allow a freedom from impurity to claim for it an exemption from criticism. We must state our opinion, then, that the story is contradictory as well as improbable: we see a boy, who had been brought up as a servant till his seventeenth birth-day, suddenly emerging from the kitchen, well acquainted with living manners and dead languages: we meet with a barber gifted with similar gentility and acumen; and we are introduced to another footman, who has not even virtue and the classics to recommend him, but who, after having attempted various robberies and murders, marries a gentlewoman who is acquainted with his history. Besides avoiding these extravagancies, it is to be wished that all authors, who have previously been readers, would sometimes revert to the elementary and laudable exercise of *Parsing*; and, in imitation of Mr. Amphlett, we shall transcribe a definition of this word from Johnson's Dictionary:

"To PARSE. To resolve a sentence into the elements or parts of speech.

"Let scholars reduce the words to their original: to the first case of nouns or first tense of verbs, and give an account of their formation and changes, their syntax and dependencies, which is called *parsing*."

If Mr. Amphlett had examined his manuscript by this rule, he could hardly have left in it such a string of grammatical errors as are clustered in the following sentences:—'He *eat* moderately, and *overcame* with fatigue he now reclined on the earth, and fell into a profound sleep. Ned was *awoke* in the morning,' &c.—'Helen and Mary were more gratified than they *scarce dare* to appear.'—'Helen had *paled* during the progress of his narrative.'—'If she spoke *civil* and *respectful* to Sir Hubert,' &c. Some colloquial inelegancies also occur; such as giving an offending servant '*orders to leave* at the end of a month;' Ned's complimenting Mary '*on her talent at the cheerful*,' &c.

&c. We will dwell no longer, however, on these inaccuracies, while the pleasure which some parts of this work afforded us remains unacknowleged. It is written throughout with much spirit, and contains many reflections which indicate a mind that is attentive to the truths and vicissitudes of life, and nicely observant of the varieties in the human feelings and character. The description of the hero's youthful fortitude is very interesting; and the scene of recognition with his mother is affecting and natural.

Art. 12. *The Husband and the Lover.* An Historical and Moral Romance. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1809.

Though we disapprove the mixture of truth and fiction which is generally found in historical romances, and think with Lafeu, (in "All's well that ends well,') that "one that lies three thirds, and uses a known truth to pass a thousand nothings with, should be once heard, and thrice beaten," still we were much pleased with the romance before us and found in the last two volumes considerable promise of future merit. The first volume consists chiefly of details of the fêtes and tournaments exhibited at the court of Louis XIV., which are all copied from the *Mémoires de St. Simon*, except the embellishment of 'nymphs' in the grottos of St. Germain, 'playing charming rural airs on an organ.' We meet also with descriptions of the Country of France, taken from Swinburne; and conversations on natural history, avowedly borrowed from Buffon. The memory of the Count de Grammont is unfairly attacked by a story which is discreditable to his valour; and, after having read a minute account of the dresses worn by him and by every individual at the tournament, we were rather dismayed at finding that they changed their attire in consequence of a masquerade, and that we had to encounter another catalogue of plumes and armour, turbans and stockings. When, however, the author has exhausted the stock of quotations, and made us sufficiently acquainted with the wardrobes of the *dramatis personæ*, this work rises considerably in our estimation by its animated relation of the conquests of John Sobieski and his delivery of Vienna; and we think that great commendation is due to the writer for the care which has here been taken to avoid unnecessary violations of the veracity of history: as well as for the art and industry with which many interesting and authentic anecdotes have been woven into the story.

Art. 13. *Sir Owen Glendower*, and other Tales. By Ant. Frederick Holstein. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Lane and Co.

Dr. Johnson observed that the invention of a story was no inconsiderable effort of the human mind;—and if this remark be true, some applause must be due to the author of these tales, which are all different from each other in their plot, and of which each displays marks of originality. 'Sir Owen Glendower' was the tale which afforded us least satisfaction, though some humour occurs in the description which it contains of Welsh festivities. In works of this sort, we consider the want of probability as a fault much more deserving of toleration, and more susceptible of amendment, than the want of spirit or of interest; yet we would advise this author, when

the

he undertakes to write a history of modern characters, to put such speeches in their mouths as it is at least possible for them to make: the romantic dialogues in 'the Orphan Heiress' are ridiculous, instead of being pathetic and probable. He should also attend more to the construction of his sentences, some of which are obviously incorrect. The plot, however, of 'the Orphan Heiress' is new and singular; that of 'Egbert' is interesting, as well as excentric; and, on the whole, we venture from these specimens to augur favourably of the author's future productions.

Art. 14. *Leicestershire Tales.* By Miss Mary Linwood. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. R. Phillips.

These tales are more deficient in interest than in moral. Most of the events are either too improbable to excite sympathy, or too insignificant to arrest attention; and the different personages are hurried from one country and continent to another, with such theatrical velocity, that our wearied imaginations refused to follow them: particularly as we conceived that, in the descriptions of their travels, a geographical dictionary had been so unceremoniously employed as to preclude much hope of original observations. The chief character of each tale seems commendably intended to display the evil consequences of some particular failing: but in the conduct of their history we remark this defect, that their misfortunes are not attributable to the foible from which they are supposed to originate. For instance, the sorrows of an *indolent* character spring from an elopement to which she has in an evil hour consented; and the reader, after having witnessed several minor misfortunes proceeding from her indolence, instead of moralizing on this last *faux pas*, is vainly puzzled in tracing the paradoxical analogy between laziness and lightness of heels.

Art. 15. *Rebecca, or the Victim of Duplicity.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Lackington and Co.

Though this novel present some obvious improbabilities, we were at least gratified with perceiving a higher tone of morality than is usually found in books of this class. The author has collected wise and clear arguments against infidelity; for the repetition of which we must thank him, because, however trite they may appear, they cannot be repeated too often, while one infidel remains who may chance to peruse them. The misery produced by "the fellowship of the ungodly" is illustrated by a tale which is not devoid of interest; and in which the sufferings of the most estimable character (the heroine's father,) are compensated not in the usual way, by raising him to unexpected wealth and honours, but by giving him a spirit of religion which enables him to find consolation in a life of piety and benevolence, and in looking forwards to repose in heaven. With the lighter parts of the work we were not much amused: the heroine's letters from London are rather pert than clever; and in all the conversations which are meant to be particularly lively, we think that vulgarity has been unfortunately mistaken for wit and humour.

Art. 16. *The Soldier's Orphan.* A Tale by Mrs. Costello. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

Some novels have no character at all, "and this is one of them."

It

It is neither remarkably dull nor particularly lively; neither perfectly uninteresting nor peculiarly pleasing; in short, neither commendable nor reprehensible. It would indeed be almost as difficult to bear away the palm of superior insipidity from the crowd of rivals who seem constantly contending for it, as to win that of pre-eminent excellence from the few who have endeavoured to attain it. Of a work of such negative merit as 'The Soldier's Orphan,' the highest recommendation is that it will do no harm: though it may not improve, it cannot mislead; and the balance is carried so even, that it atones in morality for what it wants in interest.

Art. 17. *The Cottage of the Var.* A Tale. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Tipper. 1809.

In treating of some works, description answers all the purposes of animadversion; and of this class is the production before us. The hero is a genius who, though '*his black brows were drawn by the pencil of strong sense*,' had '*attained the age of one and twenty without having passed one hour in reflection since his birth*.' At last, on hearing a sweet voice in a wood, '*for the first time in his life he began to think*;' and owing to the novelty of the occupation, he soon became so '*lost in thought*,' as to wander insensibly to the cottage in which the songstress resided with her majestic mamma. This heroine has '*a seraphic appearance*,' together with a straw hat and straw basket, and '*music books selected by an elegant mind*.'—After having passed through the usual routine of dangers and discoveries, the lady and gentleman have the comfort of being happily married, and of seeing their enemies punished: but, at last, the heroine turns out to be an Italian countess!—These tinsel coronets multiply on us so fast, that we have sometimes resolved to read no novel which does not give a circumstantial account of the heroine's birth and parentage in the first chapter; because, where this is wanting, we read in constant dread of her overwhelming us in her last moments with a mass of uninteresting evidence to prove that she is a countess in her own right.

Art. 18. *Matilda Montford.* A Romantic Novel. By Peter Peregrine, Esq. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Spencer, 1809.

The motto prefixed to each of these volumes is,

"Lend thy *serious* hearing
To what I shall unfold;" (Shakspeare.)

and the recurrence of this injunction was our only defence against the risibility which was excited by various passages that seem intended to be sublime; such as the addresses to modesty, sleep, and health; together with descriptions of 'chrystal lakes' and 'flowing lakes,' 'murky air,' and 'misty mountains,' seen '*before the Sun had opened the window of the east*.' These landscapes are sometimes enlivened with '*busy vintage men*,' and sometimes with '*ruddy sickle men*,' vulgarly called reapers. The story is all told in the last volume; for though in the first we were on the point of hearing two or three death-bed confessions, which might have enabled us to conjecture the remainder that was to be '*unfolded*,' the invalids recovered, and kept their lives and their secrets more pertinaciously than we re-

tained our patience. Throughout the work we see an affected inversion of words; and so many adjectives, that, if those which are superfluous had been retrenched, at least two volumes would have been taken off our hands. Such a scheme, however, might have answered our purposes, but would not perhaps have equally accommodated the author: who seems to have been so inveterately determined on producing four *tomes* of this novel, *coute qui coute*, as to present his readers with several duplicate seizures and sicknesses, which are almost the only vicissitudes of life that he has chosen to notice; and his personages have consequently such shocking health and such frequent falls, that their history seems most calculated to amuse the leisure moments of a hospital nurse.

Art. 19. *Guiscard*; or the Accusation. A Romance. By Horace Vere. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Newman and Co.

The style of this novel is always simple and dignified, and in some parts even masterly; and the story, though rather intricate, is interesting and moral. It shews the powers of Friendship, and the benefit of her exertions: but we were sorry to see the noble and ardent Sir Eustace led by his affection for his friend into an act of treachery, even towards the despicable Bolebec. The abbot's description of his own old age is touching and pathetic.

Art. 20. *Theodore and Blanche*; or the Victims of Love. From the French of Madame Cottin. 2 vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Tipper. 1808.

Though this little story is far from deserving to be ranked with the higher productions of Madame Cottin's pen, yet it may excite some interest in those who depend on the circulating library for all their pleasurable studies. The translation has been very hastily executed; the diction is often barbarous; and the grammar is not seldom inaccurate.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *Horæ Ionicæ:* a Poem descriptive of the Ionian Islands, and Part of the adjacent Coast of Greece. By Waller Rodwell Wright, Esq. sometime His Britannic Majesty's Consul General for the Republic of the Seven Islands. 8vo. pp. 67. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

The voyage, with which Mr. Wright indulges his readers, is of so attractive a nature, and his company and conversation in the course of it are so agreeable, that most of them will regret the shortness of its duration, and the slight manner in which he touches at his several points. Corcyra naturally detains him longest: he there examines the site of the Homeric gardens of Alcinous; points to the rock which still preserves its denomination of the ship of Ulysses,

—' for ever rooted in the sea
The monument of Neptune's stern decree;'

and, as he gazes on the calm and ample bay, is transported to the period at which the island flourished in wealth and splendor, the colony of luxurious Corinth. He is then reminded of revolt and separation, and describes in very animated lines the banishment and return,

turn, the desperate resistance and fatal overthrow, of the few who, in the midst of dissaffection, still retained their allegiance to the mother-country. The successful defence of Corfu against the Turks in 1645 is less amply detailed: indeed, it was necessary for the author to confine himself to general expressions, because the particulars of the attack are very imperfectly known; and the names of the leaders to whom their country owed its protection have been unfortunately and unjustly forgotten. This idea is happily conveyed by Mr. Wright, after having mentioned the slaughter of the enemy:—

'Fain the muse would tell
Beneath whose arm their bravest leaders fell:
But dark oblivion shrouds each glorious name,
And fate, which crown'd their valour, wrongs their fame.'

Our poetical guide now leads us to various interesting spots in the other islands, which are endeared to a classical mind by the most pleasing recollections; and he visits particular districts on the Grecian coasts, which are remarkable for similar associations, or adorned with the ruins of antient architecture, or distinguished in modern times by their exemption from the petty tyrants of the Ottoman empire. Mr. W.'s verses are flowing; his language is pure and unaffected; and his subjects are uniformly delightful: but we decline to make quotations from the poem, for the sake of inserting his neat summary of the peculiarities which mark the modern Greek language, as it is spoken in the Ionian islands.

'The dialect in general use throughout these islands and the adjacent part of the continent of Greece is the Doric; but corrupted by the introduction of a great number of Italian words, and some of Turkish origin, which have, for the most part, been naturalized by the addition of Greek terminations.

'The radical words of the modern Greek, in general, bear a near affinity to those of the ancient language: and the principal differences between the two are those of pronunciation and inflection.

'The first of these is the invariable observance of accent, and disregard of quantity; which, although they may be tolerated in ordinary conversation or in the reading of prose authors, by destroying the melody of rhythm, considerably detract from the beauties of Homer and Theocritus, and are still more sensibly felt in the works of the tragedians and lyric poets.

'It would be too bold an attempt to determine how far the force of the vowels, diphthongs, and certain of the consonants in the modern system of pronunciation, may correspond with the usage of the classical ages: but the difference between the English and Romaic pronunciation of the Greek may be principally reduced to the following table:

α is pronounced as *a* in the Italian.

ι ..... } ε .....
αι ..... }
η ..... }

η .....) ι. .....
υ .....
οι .....
ει .....

ου ..... as *u* in Italian, or *o o* in English.

ο. ω ..... as *o* without any difference as to the quantity, and indeed frequently inverting it.*

'υ after a vowel becomes a consonant, and is sounded as *v*, which sound is also common to the β: thus, βασιλιυς is pronounced *vasilevs*. χ is a peculiar national letter of a harsh guttural sound, resembling, but somewhat more aspirated than, the German pronunciation of the letter *g*; and

'δ has the force of the softened *th*, as in *thee, thou*, &c.

'With respect to inflection, the modern Greek seems to be very deficient; and indeed that defect is chiefly supplied, as in other modern languages, by prefixing prepositions to mark the relations of the substantives, and conjunctions to distinguish the moods of the verbs.

'In the latter, the aorist is the past tense most commonly used; and the preterite and its derivatives are formed in all the voices respectively, by the auxiliaries ἐχω and ἠμαι.

'The infinitive is no longer in use, but its place is supplied by 'να (the contraction of ἱνα) prefixed to the verb in the subjunctive mood; by a singular anomaly, however, in conversation, the infinitive mood of the verb ειμι, is almost the only part used when speaking in the present tense.

'Another peculiarity of the modern Greek is the adoption of the indefinite article, in conformity also with the genius of other European languages: ενα in the masculine and μια in the feminine serve for all cases without an inflection.

'In consequence of these differences, the ear which is accustomed to the English pronunciation of the Greek language seeks in vain for that full, sonorous cadence which early habits have taught us to admire, and finds in its stead an acute, stridulous combination of sounds, which is far from being either agreeable or harmonious; while the mind is disgusted at the barbarous structure of a dialect which confounds the anomalies of ancient and modern grammar.

'I do not presume to extend these observations beyond the limits of the Ionian islands; though, from the few opportunities which I have had of listening to the conversation of the Albanian soldiery, I believe that, as far as relates to pronunciation, they may be equally applicable to the people of that district, who are reported, in other respects, to speak the Romaic dialect with a degree of purity much nearer to that of the ancient Greek: while (singular as it may appear) the natives of Attica, though still remarkable for wit and acuteness of intellect, speak a more barbarous jargon than even the inhabitants of the Ionian Islands. Much has been done, since the first connection of the court of St. Petersburgh with the Greeks of the continent, towards purifying the Romaic, and reducing it to the

* Thus Ἀνθρωπος is pronounced as if written Ἀνθρωπους.

form of a regular dialect, and many works in that language have been published at Trieste.

'The Legislative Assembly of the Seven Islands had also decreed, that after ten years no other language should be used in the promulgation of the laws, the public records, pleadings, and process of the courts of justice.

'What might have been the effect of this regulation it is impossible to determine; but I am much inclined to suspect, that the improvement of their literature would never have maintained an equal pace with the rapid progress of their political corruption.'

We are sorry to learn from Mr. W.'s preface, that in consequence of the occupation of this short-lived republic, (called by him the Septinsular territory) by a French force, the world has lost a more extensive work which he had meditated on the same subject, by his having been deprived of the materials which he had collected; together with a valuable library, which was confiscated and sold by the French at Zante, as English property. We apprehend that his proposed tract would have been very generally acceptable, and are unwilling to resign the hope that the loss may, in a considerable degree, be repaired.

Art. 22. *Brighton*. A Poem. Descriptive of the Place, and Parts adjacent, and other Poems. By Mary Lloyd. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Harding. 1809.

Shall princely Brighton remain unsung, while so many other watering-places of less note have been be-puffed and be-praised in verse? It must not be, says Miss (or Mrs.) Mary Lloyd;

"*Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen,*
Aut Ephesum, bimarisve Corinthi
Mœnia.— (Hor.)

"and I will chuse Brighton for my theme." It must be confessed that she has endeavoured to make the most of it; and though she has invoked no muse, knowing perhaps that the ladies of the hill are very coy, she has contrived, with a pen which seems to have *the gift of going*, to weave into her poem the characteristic features of the place, from the pavilion of the Prince to the bathing machine of Martha Gun.

Thus is the subject of the poem apostrophized:

'Brighton*! thou loveliest neighbour of the wave,
Whose stately cliffs the rolling surges lave,
Where roseate *health* amid the breezes *play*,
Whose gentle breathings cool the fervid ray
Of scorching summer; pleasing gay Retreat,
Beauty's, and fashion's ever favourite seat:
Where splendour lays its cumbrous pomp aside,
Content, in softer, simpler paths to glide;
Where in succession, various pastimes sport,
Where nature's grand and simple beauties court,
Where every taste may find a charm to please,
If fond of the sublime; the surging seas

'* Brighthelmstone is supposed to have derived its name from Brighthelm, the name of some considerable person to whom it belonged; and the Saxon word Tun, signifying town: it was abbreviated to Brighton, about the end of the 17th century.'

Their vast floods rolling on the sounding shores,
When the bold wind unfolds the billowy stores;
Will lift with solemn awe the wond'ring soul,
To Him! who bade those mighty waters roll.
Or if in simpler scenes thou find'st delight,
The *country* round thy devious steps *invite*,
To mount the uplands, or the daisied plains
To trace, and list while birds their melting strains,
Of youthful day enamour'd, sweetly trill,
While snowy flocks adorn the fragrant hill.'

The fishermen, the bathing, the rocks, the cliffs, the chalybeate spring, the signal-house, the parade, the races, the devil's dyke, the libraries, the church-yard, the Steyne, Preston and Wick, the theatre, the circus, and assembly rooms, &c. are all noticed, and described in such a way as may be acceptable to the frequenters of Brighton, who will easily follow the writer from object to object. Since ladies bathing form an important and attractive feature at watering-places, this lady-poet has not only devoted some lines to the description of that ceremony, but has done Martha Gun the honour of making her *priestess of the mysteries*:

'But softer scenes invite the cheerful eye,
When the calm sea reflects the azure sky;
When gentle zephyrs o'er the waters sweep
Their silken wings, and scarcely move the deep;
When beauteous fair-ones to the beach repair,
To taste the wave*, or breathe the sea-fraught air;
Or wait in turns, their lovely forms to lave,
And steal fresh beauties from the ambient wave:
See each fair cheek a brighter tint display,
Each sparkling eye emits a livelier ray;
The vital stream swift coursing from the heart,
Diffuses glowing health through every part:
Each rose-lip'd Hebe, now more *brightly* fair,
With buoyant spirits seems to tread the air.
But hence, profane ones! nor with prying face
Approach the precincts of this hallow'd place;
Where Martha Gun, sage *priestess* of the shrine,
Guards, with religious care, *the rights divine*:
Twice twenty times the glorious circling sun,
O'er the blue sea his annual course has run,
Since honest Martha, in the lucid wave,
To beauty's charms an added lustre gave;
Now aged grown, and toil no more her lot,
Yet still she hovers round the favourite spot.'

We have heard of some Actæons who are very desirous of having a peep at these 'rites divine:' but we hope that the tremendous aspect of Martha Gun will keep such audacious sparks at a proper distance.

As Miss Mary Lloyd professes to be *young in poetic deeds*, (this

* 'About 1750 the medical use of sea-water was brought into practice at this place by Dr. Russel.'

being

being her first attempt,) we would rather treat her with one of our smiles than with a surly frown: but since she has now *broken the ice*, (as we say,) and may be induced to plunge again and again in the poetic wave, we would recommend her to be more fastidious; and in particular not to suppose that *peace* rhymes well to *race*, or *return* to *sun*, or that grammar may be sacrificed to rhyme.

All good christians will say Amen to her Address to the Deity:

> 'Thou gracious Source of Mercy! that afar
> From this blest Isle, hath kept the seat of war!
> Oh! when it pleases thy Omniscient will!
> Speak peace, and bid the warring world be still.'

We are sorry not to be able to compliment this lady on her Miscellaneous Poems: but the loungers at the libraries may call them pretty.

Art. 23. *The Sceptic*: a philosophical Satire. By the Author of Corruption and Intolerance *. 8vo. 1s. Carpenter. 1809.

Should the rule of Des Cartes be adopted, "*de iis omnibus studiamus dubitare, in quibus vel minimam incertitudinis suspicionem reperiemus*," scepticism would unavoidably be the reigning fashion. Among philosophers, it has always been in request; and we need never be ashamed of doubting, when we recollect that by so doing we keep the very best company: but between that doubting which acts as a signal to guard us against drifting on the rocks of implicit faith, and the obstinate resistance of evidence which inevitably impells towards the vortex of Infidelity, an open sea expands, in which all the truly wise will endeavour to steer their bark.

This spirited satirist wishes to be considered as not less orthodox than sceptical: but we will not promise him that he will pass muster with the saints. As a poet, he has energy, and his satiric lash is made of good whip-chord. His use of it, in the region of politics, will be called *fun* by one party and *no fun* by the other: but we shall follow the poet to the department of scientific and theological scepticism.

> 'In Science too—how many a system, rais'd
> Like Neva's icy domes, awhile hath blaz'd
> With lights of fancy and with forms of pride,
> Then, melting, mingled with the oblivious tide
> *Now* Earth usurps the centre of the sky,
> *Now* Newton puts the paltry planet by;
> *Now* whims revive beneath Descartes's pen,
> Which *now* assail'd by Locke's, expire again:
> And when, perhaps, in pride of chemic powers,
> We think the keys of nature's kingdom ours,
> Some Davy's magic touch the dream unsettles,
> And turns at once our alkalis to metals!
> Or, should we roam in metaphysic maze,
> Through fair-built theories of former days,
> Some Dr—mm—d from the north, more ably skill'd,

* See our Review for April last.

Like other Goths, to ruin than to build,
Tramples triumphant through our fanes o'erthrown,
Nor leaves one grace, one glory of his own!
'OH Learning! Learning! whatsoe'er thy boast,
Unlettered minds have taught and charm'd us most;
The rude, unread Columbus was our guide
To worlds, which learn'd Lactantius had deny'd,
And one wild Shakespeare, following Nature's lights,
Is worth whole planets, fill'd with Stagirites;
'SEE grave Theology, when once she strays
From Revelation's path, what tricks she plays!
How many various heavens hath Fancy's wing
Explor'd or touch'd, from Papias down to King!
And hell itself, in India nought but smoke,
In Spain's a furnace, and in France—a joke.
'HAIL, modest Ignorance! thou goal and prize,
Thou last, best knowledge of the humbly wise!
Hail, sceptic ease! when error's waves are past,
How sweet to reach thy tranquil port at last,
And, gently rock'd in undulating doubt,
Smile at the sturdy winds, which war without!
There gentle Charity, who knows how frail
The bark of Virtue, even in summer's gale,
Sits by the nightly fire, whose beacon glows
For all who wander, whether friends or foes!
There Faith retires, and keeps her white sail furl'd,
Till call'd to spread it for a purer world;
While patience lingers o'er the weedy shore,
And mutely waiting till the storm be o'er,
Turns to young Hope, who still directs his eye
To some blue spot, just breaking in the sky!
'THESE are the mild, the blest associates given
To him who doubts, and trusts in nought but Heaven!'

The lines flow with ease, but do not *tamely* flow.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *A Critical Essay on the ninth book of Bishop Warburton's Divine Legation of Moses.* Published in consequence of having gained the annual Prize, instituted by the late Rev. J. Hulse, A. M. of St John's College. By John Norman Pearson, Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 140. 4s. sewed. Hatchard.

While we allow Bishop Warburton to be 'great, animated, and original,' we cannot think that his writings, notwithstanding their learning and elaborate research, have contributed in any extent to the elucidation of Scripture; or that his theological Odyssey, the Ninth Book of the Divine Legation, was now deserving of a Critical Essay. Mr. Pearson, however, regarding some of its positions as heterodox, has here made it his business formerly to combat them; and he begins with Dr. W's account of the original state of man, in which Adam is represented as capable of discovering the several parts of Natural

Natural Religion by the unassisted efforts of the human understanding. This position the essayist does not deny: but he argues that it is natural to suppose, from adverting to the processes of the divine dispensations, 'that Adam derives his notions of Natural Religion by immediate inspiration.' When it is allowed that the Scriptures are silent concerning the manner in which Adam acquired a knowlege of his moral obligations, hypothesis may be set in array against hypothesis without the possibility of arriving at any definite conclusion: but we did not expect that in the mathematical University, where the doctrine is, *Frustra fit per plura, quod fieri potest per pauciora*, we should hear it maintained that God made man in his own image, capable of Natural Religion, and then communicated it by inspiration. Indeed, 'Natural Religion communicated by Inspiration' appears a complete solecism; for by the former is meant that religion to the discovery of which human reason is competent; and by the latter, knowlege afforded through supernatural means. The deductions of Geometry being within the scope of human reason, it would surely be strange to have them represented as the result of inspiration.

With no more success, in our opinion, does Mr. P. controvert Dr. W.'s notion of the efficacy of repentance under the dispensation of Natural Religion; and, to our surprise, he asserts that 'we are not authorized by the Sacred Writings, nor by any inference legitimately deduced from the facts stated in them, to conclude that repentance alone is available for the remission of sins. 'What will Mr. P. make of the following scriptural declarations? "A broken heart is a sacrifice God will not despise"—"the Lord saveth the contrite spirit"—"Let the wicked forsake his way and the Lord will abundantly pardon"—"Turn unto me, saith the Lord, and I will turn unto you;" to say nothing of the parable of the returning prodigal. Farther on, it is asserted that 'nothing but an uniform course of uninterrupted obedience can *entitle* a creature to God's favour;' Mr. P. might have added, nor that either: but the question is not about what we are *intitled to receive*, but respecting *the measure of divine placability*; and it is a representation of the justice of God which is not warranted by holy writ, to describe him as reluctant to forgive the imperfections of imperfect creatures, unless *full satisfaction* be made for them on the score of their being capable of *uninterrupted obedience*. It is time to consider this point more closely and with more boldness than are usual, and to explode a doctrine of which certain preachers are making a very indiscreet use. *Satisfaction* is no scripture-term; and the idea which it is intended to convey is in a moral view an utter impossibility. Viewing the death of Christ through this medium, Mr. P. has rather perplexed than enlightened the subject.

We expected something of importance on the question relative to the origin of Sacrifices: but the writer does not appear to have satisfied his own mind; he very properly objects, however, to Bishop W.'s comment on the offering up of Isaac.

The view of Justification in the D. L. is fair ground for objection; and Mr. P., by endeavouring to unite Faith and Works, has given a better picture of Christianity than Dr. Warburton.

In the section on Miracles, the sentiment of the Bishop on Demonology

monology is too hastily adopted; and Mr. Pearson makes a remark which would have better suited the 15th century than the present. 'How far the spirits of darkness (says he) are still permitted to afflict human creatures, either in their moral or physical nature, and whether they still retain any power of inducing bodily distempers, or exciting other natural evils, we are not able to determine.' What an air of wisdom does this profound ignorance assume?

Mr. P. does not altogether agree with Dr. Warburton on the subject of Prophecy; and he with reason objects to the Prelate's comment on 2 Pet. i. 19.

As a prize-essay, this tract may at present be favourably contemplated by the writer: but we venture to prophecy that nine years hence he will not think more highly of it than we do; who are perhaps nine years older than he is.

Art. 25. *Two Discourses on the Origin of Evil*, founded on the History of Cain and Abel, and on the Reply of Jesus Christ relative to the Man born blind. By T. Drummond. 8vo. pp. 37. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1809.

That nothing sinful exists in the constitution of human nature; that all the evils of which we complain in the dealings of mankind with each other are the offspring of unsubdued passions; that Abel, though descended from the same parents with Cain, was pure and holy; and that, as our Lord, in reply to the question relative to the man who was born blind, did not refer to the offence of our first parents as the source of human afflictions, so therefore corruption of nature cannot be obtained by inheritance; are the positions maintained in these sermons. The preacher, however, is rather diffuse and declamatory; and though he combats the doctrine of Original Sin on the true ground, he has embarrassed his reasoning by a loose and rambling style. Had he compressed his argument, it would have had more effect; and the matter of these two discourses might well have been contained in a single sermon.

Art. 26. *Two Sermons*, preached on the 1st Day of January, 1809. at Hanover-street Chapel; and on the 8th of the same Month, at Worship street Chapel. By Joseph Nightingale, Author of a "Portraiture of Methodism," &c. &c. Published by Request*. 8vo. pp 47. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Mr. N. has here presented us with two interesting and impressive discourses, on *the Effects of Time on the Condition of Man*, and *on Grateful Recollections of Divine Mercy and Goodness*. In the first, he has affectingly glanced at the changes which have occurred and are occurring in the political world, as well as in the private and domestic relations of life; and in the latter he draws a picture of our blessings as inhabitants of this highly favoured country, and as living under the British Constitution. The accuracy of his representation must be strongly felt at the present moment, when the nations of the Continent have lost their independence, and experience all the ravages and unspeakable

* Our collector remarked, with a smile, that he had often heard of this Publisher, Mr. Request, but could never find where he resided.

horrors

horrors of war. Throughout these sermons, he shews a mind at once serious and enlightened; and which, without bigotry and narrowness, is nobly alive to the interests of that Christianity, the essence of which is love to God and love to man.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *An impartial Examination of Sir Francis Burdett's Plan of Parliamentary Reform.* 8vo. 2s. Bone and Horne. 1809.

The Baronet's plan was to make property the basis of political right; to allow house-holders, and others who were subject to direct taxation in support of the poor, the church, and the state, as well as forty-shilling-freeholders, to have a vote in returning members to parliament; to have the elections taken in the several parishes; and to restrict the duration of parliament to three years. — Respecting this plan, the author of the present Examination suggests two distinct questions; viz. 'Are the regulations which, at a more convenient opportunity, Sir Francis means to propose, calculated to obtain the end in view? and would this end, if attained, benefit the country?'—Both these interrogatories are decided in the affirmative. It is contended that, by this extension of the elective franchise, the people would regain their due influence in the state; that public spirit would increase; that merit would have fair play; and that the public burdens would be diminished. That such acquisitions would be blessings, it is needless to prove: but at present we see little prospect of realizing these splendid visions, howmuchsoever they may be demanded by the perilous circumstances of the country. The connection which subsists between a general feeling of public spirit and patriotic energy, between fair representation and moderate taxation, is here illustrated; and it is contended that, if the people enjoyed their full rights, the force of the country would be so greatly multiplied that the King might make peace with safety. If this be true, Bonaparte is the only man in Europe who ought to oppose our Parliamentary Reform.

Art. 28. *Letters on the Affairs of Spain, and Spanish America*; with Observations on the Revolution of the Continent. By Sydney. 8vo. 2s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1809.

With no bright anticipations of the result of what is called the cause of the Spanish Patriots, this writer is solicitous to direct the views of our Government to the emancipation of Spanish America; and thus to form an Independent Empire, which would at once operate as a check on the United States, and open to us a market of an incalculable extent. According to him, all our exertions for Old Spain will be 'worse than thrown away. Our interference is pronounced to be wild and improvident; and the independence of the peninsula is considered to be impracticable in the present state of Europe. He would persuade us that, in a few months, Spain must be added to the list of revolutionized states under the influence of France; and the Spaniards are described as languid in their own cause, and incapable of the efforts of enlightened patriotism: but, when he attempts to explain the reasons which may induce the

Spaniards to wish to be revolutionized by Bonaparte, he assigns to them wishes and sentiments which exist only among an enlightened people. We are not sure, however, that the views of *Sydney* respecting the New World have not more sound policy in them, than those which this country has adopted in favour of Old Spain; and that the emancipation of Spanish America is not of more importance, than the preservation of the Mother Country from the grasp of Bonaparte.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *Narrative of the Siege of Zaragoza.* By Charles Richard Vaughan, M.B. Fellow of All-Souls College, Oxford, and one of Dr. Radcliff's Travelling Fellows from that University. The sixth Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

Though the modern Zaragoza has not displayed that unconquerable spirit which has rendered antient Numantia so celebrated in the page of history, the heroism and steady perseverance of the inhabitants of the capital of Arragon, in defending themselves against the French, are highly creditable to their military reputation. It is therefore a source of extreme lamentation to reflect, when we are perusing these interesting pages, that, after the instances of personal valour and patriotic enthusiasm in both sexes, which they record, this city should fall into the hands of the enemy, and that its smoaking ruins should be quoted by them with exultation and triumph.

The population of Zaragoza is stated to have been about 60,000 when the siege commenced: but Mr. V. does not inform us of the multitude who perished during its continuance; nor does he extend his narrative to the melancholy catastrophe of its fall. From this evidence alone we should have been led to conclude that the inhabitants of Zaragoza were successful in repelling their invaders. Alas! poor city!

Art. 30. *Arndt's Spirit of the Times.* Translated from the German by the Rev. P. W., being the Work for the Publication of which the unfortunate Palm of Erlangen was sacrificed by Napoleon, the Destroyer; containing Historical and Political Sketches, with Prognostics, relative to Spain and Portugal, Sweden, Russia, Turkey, Austria, France, and Bonaparte. 8vo. pp. 116. Thiselton. 1808.

M. Arndt's work on the *Spirit of the Times* was noticed in the Appendix to our 52d volume. The translator has given only selected passages from it; justly considering a great part of the original as too partial and local in its interest to deserve the labour of a version, which was rendered difficult by an intricate style, and by what he chuses to call the unintelligible *jargon* of the critical philosophy. We cannot doubt that the British public will thank him for having conveyed to them the sentiments of an intelligent, and, as far as we can conclude, sincere foreigner, on subjects with which he had possessed opportunities of becoming intimately acquainted: but we are convinced, that the Reverend gentleman was misinformed as to M. Arndt's work having occasioned the death of the bookseller Palm; and we much regret that he should have considered it as

proper,

proper, or as a method of recommending the pamphlet to English readers, to alter the simple title of the original, and to be anxious not only to preserve, but to increase, the strength of the epithets bestowed by the author on the head of the French nation. We also wish that he had included in this selection M Arndt's view of Great Britain. It is worth our attention to hear what a man of experience and knowlege, whose sentiments concerning our enemy coincide so fully with our own, thinks of our situation and our actions; and we may feel inclined to attach some value to the judgment of our fellow champion, though we are too proud to listen to our antagonist.

We cannot omit on this occasion to advert to M. Arndt's opinion respecting the means by which, he thinks, Bonaparte may and will yet be conquered; because the same ideas seem to be not uncommon in this country, and to be approved by some who have considerable influence in our national councils. 'Napoleon,' he says, 'will be conquered as soon as he shall be assailed with his own weapons.' These weapons are a violation of all faith, disregard of bloodshed and human misery, &c. Independently of the horror which must be excited in every feeling mind, by the idea of such a contest between the worst principles of human action, it must evidently be attended with the utmost danger, when the horrid weapons are not wielded by very powerful and skilful hands. The case of nations will ever resemble that of individuals. Even weakness finds a strong shield in truth and justice: but the ruin of the feeble will be unavoidable, and they will fall unpitied, detested, and be made accountable for all the miseries which both they and their more powerful adversaries have occasioned, when they attempt to enter the lists in conjunction with injustice and cruelty. Even prudence, therefore, advises a most careful estimation of the powers which are to take up against Bonaparte his own weapons; and we fear that they have on some occasions been employed against him without sufficient consideration. When we reflect how apt human beings are to over-rate their abilities, and how little even the rulers of states are exempt from this weakness of our nature, we cannot help being anxious that at least Great Britain should not be made, in future, to sacrifice the prospects of certain advantages from an honest policy, to the vain expectations of greater or more speedy success in the adoption of the system, which, under the direction of our powerful enemy, has so greatly contributed to extend his sway.

Art. 31. *Ecclesiastical Topography.* A Collection of one Hundred Views of Churches in the Environs of London. From Drawings expressly taken for this Work; accompanied with Descriptions from the best Sources, both MS. and printed. Vol. I. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Large Paper 4l. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c.

In consequence of their public use, their antiquity, and the peculiarity of their architecture, Ecclesiastical Buildings are generally viewed with considerable interest: to accommodate, therefore, and gratify such persons as have not leisure and opportunities for visiting the Churches in the vicinity of the Metropolis, this work presents them with

with perspective views; and for their farther information, it also contains short topographical, antiquarian, and descriptive accounts of the structures, of the more curious monumental inscriptions, and the names of the Patrons and Incumbents. In order to shew the manner in which this latter department is executed, we shall extract an Account of the Church of Carshalton, in the county of Surrey; premising, however, that several of the other descriptions are larger and somewhat more particular:

'CARSHALTON.

'The Church of Carshalton, placed about the middle of the village, upon a rising ground, consists of a chancel, nave, and two ailes, with a square tower of stone nearly in the centre. It is dedicated to All Saints.

'The greater part of the structure seems to have been erected toward the latter end of the reign of Richard the Second. Vincent's visitation of Surrey, 1623, mentions several coats which were formerly in a window of the north aile, belonging to the families of Burley, Sarnesfield, and the Earl of Somerset, which are only mentioned here to corroborate the opinion[1]. The pillars of the nave, however, may fairly be referred to a remoter period: and are perhaps the remains of the church which is mentioned in the conqueror's survey [2].

'Vincent [3] and Aubrey [4] have preserved several inscriptions which are now either lost or mutilated. The only curious one that remains is for Nicholas Gaynesford and his family, toward the latter part of the fifteenth century; the figures above which have been gilt and enamelled. It is placed against the north wall of the chancel.

'Mr. Lyson says, "In the registry at Winchester is a commission dated 1374, for reconciling the church of Carshalton, which had been polluted by the death of Thomas Gruton [5]."

'The benefice, which was anciently a Rectory, appears to have been given to Merton Abbey in the reign of Henry the Second by Pharamos of Bolognia [6]; and became appropriated before the 29th of Edward the first, 1301, when it was presented to as a vicarage [7]. It is in the deanery of Ewel, and diocese of Winchester.

'At the dissolution of monasteries, it was granted by Edward the Sixth to William Goringa. It afterwards came to the Fromonds: and from them by inheritance to the Baynes: one of whom at the beginning of the last century restored the great tithes, and re-endowed the church as a rectory [8].

'Rectors since 1700.—1703. William Hollin —1779. William Rose.

---

[1] Compare Lysons's Environs of Lond. Vol. i. p. 127.
[2] "AULTONE, Ibi Eccla" Domesd.
[3] Visit. among the Harleian Manuscripts in the Museum.
[4] Hist. of Surrey, Vol. ii. p. 175-178.
[5] Environs of London. Vol. i. p. 126.
[6] See Mon. Ang. Vol. ii. p. 135.
[7] Manning's History of Surrey. Vol. i. Introd. p. xiv.
[8] Lyson's Env. of Lond. Vol. i. p. 135.

'In

'In Pope Nicholas' Taxation', the rectory called Ecclesia de Kerssauton, stands 21 marks, the vicarage at 4l. 3s. 4d.'

The general idea of this work is good; and were views engraved of all the churches in the kingdom according to their respective counties, such a publication, although voluminous, would probably meet with patronage. With respect to the execution of this volume, however, we do not feel warranted to speak in terms of great commendation. Indeed, we think that neither the engravings are in a style of sufficient elegance, nor the accounts sufficiently particular, to accord with the importance which the work seems to assume. Had it been printed on a smaller scale, considerable expence would have been saved, and its objects equally attained. Our general opinion, therefore, is that it has not merit enough to aspire to the character of elegance; and as a book of information or reference, which should be the primary objects of such publications, it is unnecessarily expensive.—The design will be completed in two volumes, each containing fifty views.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. Preached before the Grateful Society, in All-Saints' Church, Bristol, November 14, 1808, being the Anniversary of the Nativity of the late Edward Colston, Esq. By the Rev. William Shaw, D D. Rector of Chelvey, Somerset. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

Dr. Shaw thinks with correctness, and expresses himself with liberality: but some readers will call his orthodoxy in question, when he asserts that 'Charity, for any thing we know to the contrary, may be accepted without faith.' The opinion of such critics, however, the preacher, if we read him rightly, will hold as *cheap as dirt*; and he certainly has well pleaded the cause of charity. The whole amount of Edward Colston's benefactions is stated at 76,325l.! and the Grateful (why not *well-disposed*) Society is urged to imitate his patriotic example —Dr. Shaw's prayer before the sermon is an equal indication of his expanded mind.

Art. 33. *Apostolical Directions concerning Female Education*; preached at St. Thomas's Square, Hackney, January 8, 1809, to recommend a School of Industry founded in that Place. By S. Palmer. 12mo 6d. Conder, &c.

With oratory which is evidently the result of good sense and good feeling, this preacher advocates the cause of that species of charity which is directed to the education of such poor females as are designed for the station of servitude. Mr. P. speaks from experience, in urging the plan which he here recommends; and his observations must reach the mind and heart of every good Christian.

' MS. in the King's Rememb. Office, Exch. fol. 208.'

CORRES-

Correspondence.

W. M., who seems so partial to very long articles, that he even argues against the continuance of the *Catalogue* department of our Review, will perhaps be surprized at hearing us declare that we attach to it great importance. Without such a classification, a very slight view could be taken of the Literature of the age; and at least ninety out of a hundred of the numerous books which issue from the press must be consigned to total oblivion. By the mode, therefore, which we adopt in the Catalogue part of our Review, we bring many publications forwards, which would otherwise find no critic: and though our notices are necessarily short, they are preferable to total silence. By this process, about 500 authors annually appear at our tribunal; whereas on the plan recommended by W M we should not be able to review more than 50 or 60. In the early part of our labours, we had no apprehension of being in arrears with the public: but, now, books and pamphlets are produced with such rapidity, that even with the contrivance of a catalogue we cannot make our vehicle large enough for those who apply for places.

Habeo desires to have a review of his publication speedily inserted. He happens, *for which it is impossible to account*, to think better of his work than we can do; and when he sees the article now in our drawer which refers to it, we suspect that he will be angry with himself for being so impatient.

Y. Y. inquires after a volume of Sermons. He has touched on a sore subject. What an unnoticed pile presents itself to our view! O that this pile were a "false creation," and that we could wake and find it but a dream!

To the Reader.

*** It has been determined to reprint all the Numbers of the Monthly Review which have so long been *desiderata*; and as soon, therefore, as so large a quantity of matter can pass through the press, we shall be able to furnish our friends with such parts of the M. R. as they may want, to perfect their setts. — A few complete copies of the whole work, also, with the *General Indexes*, will be thrown into the hands of the booksellers, for casual sale; and an opportunity, *which can never again occur*, will thus be presented to the public, of obtaining setts, bound in every variety of manner, and made up uniformly at once from sheets.

☞ The Appendix to Vol. LIX. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains various articles of interesting and important new Foreign Publications; with the *General Title*, *Index*, &c. for the Volume.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1809.

ART. I. *Zoological Lectures*, delivered at the Royal Institution in the Years 1806 and 1807, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S &c. &c. with Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mrs. Griffith. 2 Vols. 8vo, 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1809.

FEW pursuits are more interesting, rational, and innocent than the cultivation of the different branches of natural science; and among them the study of Zoology, or of the habits, the characteristic differences, the powers, and the adaptations of the various animals by whom the chief animal Man is surrounded, may certainly be considered as holding a distinguished place. Yet, comparatively speaking, we seldom meet in society with individuals, male or female, who have directed a share of their attention to this object; and, excepting a superficial acquaintance with those domestic creatures who are constantly before our eyes, and administer to our daily wants and pleasures, zoographical acquirements are mostly confined to men who professedly devote themselves entirely to the science of Natural History, or to those who render this knowlege subservient to the purposes of trade. Chemistry and Botany have of late gained much ground among us, as polite accomplishments; and we see no reason that should prevent the contemplation of the animal world from becoming equally prevalent. To facilitate a diffusion of this taste, it is known to our readers that Dr. Shaw has already done much; and in the work now before us we have not only additional evidence of his labours, but, considering the place in which his discourses were delivered, additional cause for auguring well of their success.

The lectures are only twelve in number, and are intended to illustrate, in a short and popular manner, the history of animated nature, according to the Linnéan mode of arrangement; with such occasional deviations, or transpositions, as the recent state of knowlege has suggested. The object of the introductory part of the first lecture is to recommend the

study of Natural History: but the most cogent and sublime inducements to its prosecution are rather obscurely noticed; while disproportionate stress is laid on a subordinate motive, deduced from the blunders into which celebrated poets and others have been betrayed by their neglect of this department of science. We admit an obvious propriety in stating such arguments, and in allowing them their due weight: but we do not regard it as the part of a skilful pleader to give them a preference over more convincing and important reasoning.

Under the head of methodical arrangement, we could have desired a more decided leaning to the *ascending* series; both because it better coincides with our ideas of taste, and because it is attended with more ease and gratification to the student than the inverse procedure.

Having sketched the great outlines of the Linnéan classification, Dr. Shaw very properly hints at the Cuvierian division of *Vertebrated* and *Invertebrated* animals: but some of the extraordinary phænomena in the history of the *Polypi* are here misplaced, especially as they are re-stated in the sequel.

Lectures second, third, and fourth, present a very rapid view of the *Mammiferous* animals; including the *Pinnated* and *Cetaceous* families, in the form of distinct divisions annexed to the other orders.—In the whole of this extensive range, we observe little that needs detain us. Yet, in justice to the Doctor's candour, we shall make room for the ensuing paragraph:

'A few years ago a very remarkable animal was brought into this country from the interior parts of Bengal, which by Mr. Pennant and others was referred to the present genus, and considered as a species of Sloth. Its general appearance however was so much allied to that of a Bear, that it was natural enough, at first sight, to suppose it to belong to the genus Ursus. It was in company with Mr. Pennant that I first examined it with accuracy, and could not but agree with him in opinion that it should be regarded as a species of Sloth, from the appearance of the teeth. But the age of the animal was not ascertained, and it was not clear that it had gained the legitimate number of its teeth. It was described by myself under the name of *Bradypus ursinus*, or the Ursine Sloth, and has been extremely well figured by an ingenious artist, whose representation has been repeated in different works. The animal was about the size of a Bear, and of a black colour, with very long shaggy hair; a lengthened, naked, and flexible snout; five excessively strong, curved claws on the fore-feet, and five much smaller, and of a rounder shape, on the hind feet; the tail and ears very short. Its motions were not peculiarly languid, as in the Sloths, but moderately lively: its manners were gentle, and it fed on vegetable substances and milk. I forbear any longer description of the animal, and must refer those who wish for more particular information, to the description given in the Naturalist's Miscellany, and in the last Edition of Mr. Pennant's Quadrupeds;

peds; but I have now to observe that in consequence of information received on this subject from an ingenious naturalist lately arrived from India, and who has had opportunities of examining the animal in its native regions, it ought really to be referred to the genus *Ursus* or Bear, and may therefore not improperly be named Ursus Bengalensis or the Bengal Bear.'

The design and complexion of these pages had induced us to expect much pleasing detail in the illustration of the canine species: but how were we mortified to find the dog-tribe only technically defined by generic characters, and then dismissed with the important remark that the visage is of a lengthened shape!

The Cetaceous Mammalia, though not allowed to tumble about in the free expanse of their native element, afford us no ordinary entertainment, as they pass in review before us:

'With respect to the anatomy of the Whale, I shall content myself with observing, that on so colossal a scale of magnitude does nature act in these animals, that the vertebræ or joints of the back-bone are of the size of moderate barrels; the ribs and jaw-bones so large as to be occasionally used to form the sides of tall, arched gateways; the heart too large to be contained in a very wide tub; the aorta or principal artery measures about a foot in diameter, and it is computed that the quantity of blood thrown into it at every pulsation of the heart, is not less than from ten to fifteen gallons.

'The strength of the great Northern Whale is prodigious; it is able to shatter a strong canoe in pieces with a single stroke of its tail: it swims, according to the computation of Cepede, at the rate of about thirty-three feet in a second, and it is further computed that in the space of about forty-seven days, it might circumnavigate the globe in the direction of the equator, even allowing it to rest by night during the whole time. It is supposed to be an extremely long-lived animal. The female produces, in general, but one young at a birth, which usually measures something more than twenty feet in length; and she has the reputation of being very tenderly attached to her offspring.'—

'The Physeter Macrocephalus, or great Spermaceti Whale, is not greatly inferior in size to the Great Whalebone Whale or Mysticete, and is of a shape not less uncouth; the head being of so vast a size as at least to equal a third of the length of the whole animal. It is from this Whale, as well as from some others of this genus, that the well-known substance popularly known by the name of Spermaceti is obtained. This substance, which in the living animal is a liquid oil, is contained in a vast cellular cavity within the head; when exposed to the effect of cold air, it concretes into a solid form: it exists in other parts of the animal, as well as in the head, and may be gained from the blubber or common oil by proper preparation: in a smaller proportion also it is found to exist in the blubber of all the rest of the Whale tribe, and even in the oil of the generality of marine animals.

'Another remarkable production of this and other species of the Physeter tribe, is known by the name of Ambergris, and has long

continued its reputation as an agreeable perfume. Ambergris is an opake whitish, greyish, or yellowish substance, so light as to swim, not only in water, but even in spirit of wine. Its real origin was formerly much disputed, but it is now ascertained to be a product from the Whales of this tribe, and it will perhaps excite some surprise in those who may not be informed of its real nature, to be told that it is no other than part of the natural contents of the animals' intestines, hardened by the effect of some disease, into a compact or unusually solid state. An idea has been entertained, and perhaps it is not an improbable one, that Ambergris owes it odour to the flesh of a particular species of Cuttle Fish, which has naturally a musky smell, and on which these Whales are known particularly to feed. In the larger pieces of Ambergris, the horny beaks of these Cuttle Fish are generally found imbedded.

In the two next Lectures, which complete the first volume, we are called to a survey of the feathered tribes: but here Dr. S. exhibits a very abridged and inadequate view of ornithology. We know not on what principle of partition the history of birds should occupy less space than that of quadrupeds, since their kinds are more multiplied, and their manners at least equally attractive; nor why it should be treated at no greater length than that of the molluscous animals, which is still obscure, and belongs to a much lower station in the Zoological scale.

The Linnéan *amphibia* compose the subject of the seventh Lecture. Before he particularizes the different kinds of *Testudo*, Dr. Shaw takes occasion to remark that in no branch of Natural History have more errors prevailed, than in the attempts of the most respectable systematists to discriminate the species by invariable marks. Those which were laid down by Linné, and his editor Gmelin, have been found to be entirely insufficient for the purposes of accurate distinction. The Count de la Cépède has by no means removed the general ambiguity; and Schoeff, a German Zoologist of considerable eminence, has exposed the fallacy of long established criteria assumed from the claws; since some specimens of the common green Turtle will be found with only a single claw on each foot, others with two, or even three, and others with two on the fore-feet, and one on the hind. The same diversity is occasionally observable in the feet of some of the land Tortoises, and particularly in those of the Greek, or common species.

Dr. Shaw's sketch of the serpentine race is, avowedly, 'very short,' and in fact limited to eight pages. Yet our readers will, perhaps, admit that this is no unfair proportion of consideration, since the fishes are dispatched in the eighth, and the insects in the ninth Lecture. The preliminary observations

servations on both are at once comprehensive, and expressed with Dr. Shaw's appropriate elegance and neatness.—Though the *Halsydrus* be still very imperfectly known, the recent notices of portions of its remains might have been introduced with propriety, immediately after the sharks.

On the much controverted question concerning the circulation of the blood in insects, we have these sensible observations:

'It has been a matter of doubt among naturalists, and particularly those of the French School, whether insects can properly be said to have a circulation of the blood; and whether they have any organ that can properly be called a heart. The celebrated Cuvier seems to suppose that they have not. It is acknowledged indeed that the animals of the Crab and Lobster tribe, the Monoculi, and others of that particular cast, have a genuine circulation; but these animals should, according to some Zoologists, be separated from insects, and form a distinct division in the animal kingdom. Nay, Monsieur Lamarck is willing to exclude even the Spider tribe from the class of insects, because in these animals the heart and circulation of the blood are distinctly visible.

'The organ which the famous Italian anatomist Malpighi supposed to constitute the heart, or rather a kind of chain of hearts, in the Silkworm, has been since proved to be a vessel of a different nature, the use of which does not appear to be fully understood; but no ramifications of blood-vessels proceed from it.

'It seems to have escaped the attention of those who are not willing to allow a circulation of the blood in insects, that, though it may not be perceptible in the major part, yet it certainly appears to take place in some which are allowed on all hands to be genuine insects; and particularly in the genus Cimex or Bug. I shall here give a quotation on this subject from an author, who, though he cannot be supposed to have deeply investigated the anatomy of insects, was yet an excellent general observer, and who detailed with great plainness and accuracy his own observations, viz. Mr. Henry Baker, the celebrated microscopic observer. In speaking of the common Bug or Cimex lectularius, Mr. Baker says: "In the legs of these insects, when very small, the current of the blood is remarkably visible, together with an extraordinary vibration of the vessels, which I have never observed in any other creature; and though one of these animals has been confined between two glasses for many weeks together, so as not to be incapable of stirring, and has at times appeared dead, yet a little warmth, properly applied, would renew the motion of the bowels, and the circulation of the blood as briskly as ever." Mr. Baker also observes that the circulation of the blood may be perceived in the wings of Grashoppers, and that the globules of the blood in those animals are of a green colour.'

The naked and testaceous *Mollusca* are respectively considered in the tenth and eleventh Lectures. Without specifying each genus of the former description, the author is

contented to select, as examples, such as he conceives to be most important or most curious. Here *Limax*, or the *slug*, figures in the fore-ground; not only as a conspicuous genus, but as the pattern or model of the inhabitants of most of the univalve or spiral shells.

Pyrosoma, a genus of marine Mollusca, recently instituted by the French naturalists, is thus characterized:

'This animal (for there is only one species yet discovered) is of a lengthened and tubular form, open at one extremity, and closed at the other; the body is scattered over with numerous soft papillæ or tubercles, and there is no appearance of any regular viscera, or internal organs, but the whole presents a continued vacuity. The colour of this curious animal, when at rest, is a pale greenish blue; but, when in motion, which is performed by the alternate contraction and dilatation of the body, the whole appears in the highest degree of phosphoric lustre, passing through all the colours of a bar of red-hot iron, till at length it becomes of what is termed a white-heat; after which it again passes into the colour of red-hot iron, and from that gradually declines into its original greenish hue. The length of this animal is that of several inches, and its diameter about a fourth or fifth of its length. It is a native of some particular parts of the Atlantic ocean, where it is seen in great multitudes, and irradiates the waves with its fiery brilliancy. Linnæus would perhaps have been inclined to have made it a species of Holothuria.'

We would not willingly suppress the remarks which accompany the description of the Eight-armed Cuttle-fish:

'Mr. Pennant, in the fourth volume of his British Zoology, speaking of the Eight-armed Cuttle, tells us, he has been well assured from persons worthy of credit, that in the Indian seas this species has been found of such a size as to measure two fathoms in breadth across the central part, while each arm has measured nine fathoms in length; and that the natives of the Indian isles, when sailing in their canoes, always take care to be provided with hatchets, in order to cut off immediately the arms of such of those animals as happen to fling them over the sides of the canoe, lest they should pull it under water and sink it. This has been considered as a piece of credulity in Mr. Pennant, unworthy of a sober naturalist. It is certain however that a great variety of apparently authentic evidences seem to confirm the reality of this account. The ancients, it is evident, acknowledged the existence of animals of the Cuttle-Fish tribe of a most enormous size; witness the account given by Pliny and others of the large Polypus as he terms it, which used to rob the repositories of salt fish on the coasts of Carteia, and which, according to his description, had a head of the size of a cask that would hold fifteen amphoræ; arms measuring thirty feet in length, of such a diameter that a man could hardly clasp one of them, and beset with suckers or fasteners of the size of large basins that would hold four or five gallons apiece. The existence in short of some enormously large species of the Cuttle-Fish tribe in the Indian and northern seas

can hardly be doubted; and though some accounts may have been much exaggerated, yet there is sufficient cause for believing that such species very far surpass all that are generally observable about the coasts of the European seas. A modern naturalist chooses to distinguish this tremendous species by the title of the Colossal Cuttle-Fish, and seems amply disposed to believe all that has been related of its ravages. A northern navigator of the name of *Dens* is said some years ago to have lost three of his men in the African seas, by a monster of this kind, which unexpectedly made its appearance while these men were employed, during a calm, in raking the sides of the vessel. The Colossal Cuttle-Fish seized these men in its arms, and drew them under water, in spite of every effort to preserve them: the thickness of one of the arms which was cut off in the contest was that of a mizen-mast, and the acetabula or suckers of the size of pot-lids.

'But what shall we say to the idea of a modern French naturalist, who is inclined to suppose, that the destruction of the great French ship the Ville de Paris, taken by the English during the American war, together with nine other ships which came to her assistance on seeing her fire signals of distress, was owing, not to the storm which accompanied the disaster, but to a groupe of Colossal Cuttle-Fishes, which happened at that very time to be prowling about the ocean beneath these unfortunate vessels?

'These accounts, whether true or false, naturally recall to our recollection the far-famed monster of the Northern seas, often mentioned in a vague manner under the name of Kraken or Korven. The general tenor of these accounts is, that in some parts of the Northern seas, during the heat of summer, while the sea is perfectly calm, a vast mass, resembling a kind of floating island, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, is seen to rise above the surface: appearing to be covered with a profusion of sea-weeds, corals, and other marine substances. When it is fully risen, it seldom fails to stretch up several enormous arms, of such a height as to equal that of the masts of a ship; and after having continued in this position for some time, it again slowly descends. From the general description thus given of its shape, it has been supposed that it is a species of Sepia or Cuttle-Fish. Linnæus, in the first edition of his work entitled *Fauna Suecica*, as well as in the earlier editions of his Systema Naturæ, seems inclined to admit the existence of this animal, and forms a genus for it under the name of *Microcosmus*.'

The Lecturer's account of the Paper Nautilus is highly interesting and satisfactory, but, unfortunately, too long for transcription. The Pearl Muscle and the Barnacle are also described in a manner which is well calculated to arrest the attention, and to contribute to the entertainment and instruction of the student.—The concluding Lecture, however, will probably be found to be the most uniformly attractive, since it traces the wonderful economy and singular habits of several of the Vermes, Polypes, Zoophytes, and microscopical animals, whose history must prove equally novel and astonishing to a numerous class of readers.

In this department of his labour, we observe that the author is disposed to soften the bloody history of the *Furia infernalis;* and that he refers to Dr. Hagen's medical thesis, in which all the observations relative to it are summed up in a concise manner, and its real existence seemingly well ascertained.

The stupendous labours of the Madrepores, and the other larger corals within the tropical regions, are delineated in conformity with the observations of Dr. Reinhold Forster.

In passing to the consideration of the miscroscopical animalcules, the author not only reprehends the Buffonian hypothesis of organic molecules, but guards his readers against certain popular misapprehensions of the subject:

'After our general survey of the Zoophyte tribe, I shall beg leave to direct your attention to a Class of Animals which, till the latter part of the seventeenth century, had escaped all human attention and investigation, and constituted a kind of invisible world: a series of beings, the structure, powers, and properties of which, are perhaps more astonishing than those of most other animals: yet of such minuteness as, in general, to elude the sharpest sight, unless assisted by glasses. The ancients therefore were totally unacquainted with this class of beings. To them the Mite was made the *ne plus ultra*, or utmost bound of animal minuteness; but the moderns, assisted by the invention of the Microscope, have discovered whole tribes of animals, compared to which even Mites may be considered as a kind of Elephants. These minute beings are chiefly to be observed in fluids of various kinds; and principally in such as have had any animal or vegetable substances infused in them; and for this reason they are often called in modern Zoology by the title of *Animalcula Infusoria* or Infusorial Animalcules. A most extraordinary idea was entertained by the celebrated Count de Buffon, relative to these Animalcules; viz. that they were not real animals, but a kind of organic particles or Moleculæ, which were capable, under certain circumstances, of being formed into animated beings. The experiments of Spallanzani and others have however completely overthrown this chimerical and absurd theory of the Count de Buffon; and indeed one would hardly think it possible for any person of unprejudiced mind, nay one may even add, of common sense, to view the several animalcules in fluids, and at the same time to doubt of their being real animals. Their rapid and various motions; their pursuits of the smaller kinds on which many of the larger prey; their avoiding each other as they swim; the curious and regular structure of their bodies; and their whole appearance, form the most convincing proofs of their real animal nature and life.

'Animalcules, as I before observed, are most frequently found in fluids; but this is a doctrine that has not always been clearly understood, and has been productive of some erroneous ideas in natural history. Some writers, for instance, have asserted that almost every kind of fluid abounded with animalcules; and that wines, and spirits, exhibited legions of them. This, however, is so very far from the truth,

truth, that none are ever to be discovered in inflammable spirits, or in any fermented liquor that has not passed either into the state of vinegar, or that is not grown completely vapid. As almost all extraordinary discoveries are liable, when related by unskilful persons, to have their circumstances exaggerated by additional ornaments, we need not be surprized that this has been the case relative to the History of Microscopic Animalcules. No sooner did the microscopical observations of Leewenhoeck and a few others become pretty generally known, than immediately, as if by a kind of fatality, the animalcular doctrine was carried a great deal too far; and innumerable substances were supposed to swarm with these minute beings, which later and more accurate observations have proved to be totally free from them.'

The genera of animalcules, of which some species are particularized, are *Vorticella*, *Cercaria*, *Trichoda*, *Volvox*, *Vibrio*, *Cyclydium*, and *Monas*.

This work is illustrated and embellished throughout with excellent plates, and is well calculated to furnish some hours of agreeable and elegant recreation: but it is too much abridged, and too unequal in its distribution of notice and neglect, to serve as a regular text-book to the student of Zoology.

Art. II. *Practical Sermons*. By Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S. Editor of the New Cyclopædia. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

Notwithstanding the prevalence of infidelity on the one hand and of fanaticism on the other, we trust that the number of persons is still considerable, who are capable of receiving pleasure from such an exhibition of christian doctrine and ethics, as is calculated for reflecting and enlightened minds; and to all such readers these discourses will afford a treat of the most gratifying nature. When the long-known and respected editor of the Cyclopædia presented himself before us in the character of a writer of sermons, we expected from *him* views of divine truth which are consonant with the soundest philosophy, duties displayed with clearness and discrimination, the doctrines of the gospel brought home with conviction to the understanding, and religion enforced on the conscience as the most reasonable and dignifying service. In none of these particulars have we been disappointed; since Dr. Rees has here given proofs of his acknowleged intellectual strength and energy, and the cause of virtue and piety was never better supported. If his sermons bear not the "hall-mark" of modern orthodoxy, they are nevertheless evangelical; they

they breathe the spirit of the divine Preacher on the Mount; and they are calculated to produce those effects on the human heart, at which he aimed in the course of his public ministry. Here the power of rational conviction, of love, and of a sound mind prevail. The author is not less animated than argumentative; while the judgment is convinced, the amiable affections of our nature are touched and directed; and while he nerves us to the hardy discipline of self-government, he endeavours to infuse that mutual benevolence which is 'the test of discipleship to Christ.' It is one of the prominent characters of these discourses, that the principles which they inculcate and the practice which they recommend are made immediately to flow from Scripture. The text is not a mere motto, but, being rendered the basis and ground-work of each discussion, is well introduced and never forgotten. The prevailing sentiment of the passage of scripture at the head of each discourse, with its leading corollaries, forcibly strikes the reader; not in a formal way, but with the address of a man who is well versed in modern composition. We shall be expected to give samples to justify so high an encomium, and this part of our duty is not difficult.

Before, however, we proceed to specific notice of the sermons themselves, or to select any quotations from them, we shall present our readers with the author's modest and affecting apology for laying them before the public:

'The following Sermons were transcribed by the Author from his short-hand copies amidst numerous and urgent engagements; and they were committed to the press as they were delivered, without any addition or alteration. The partiality of his friends induced them to request that he would put them in possession of some of those discourses which they had heard from the pulpit; and as he had for many years experienced their candour, he was the less reluctant in complying with their wishes. The Author, however, is not unapprised, that personal considerations may have misled the judgment of those who have long attended his ministry; and he, therefore, presents this specimen of his professional labours with great diffidence to the public. Having been encouraged in those departments of literature and science, to which many years of his life have been devoted, he flatters himself with the hope, that his performances in the discharge of the duties of his profession, which he has always considered as his primary and most important duties, will be candidly received; and that persons, who are accustomed to the perusal of practical discourses on religious and moral subjects, will derive some degree of satisfaction and improvement from those, that now solicit their attention. If this end be answered, the Author will think himself amply compensated for the labour bestowed on transcribing them; and it will give him pleasure to reflect, that the families of his friends will possess this relic of his esteem and respect

long

long after death has terminated their mutual connection and intercourse. Beyond this period he directs his views and hopes to a happy reunion, that shall be indissoluble and everlasting.'

A congregation of Protestant Dissenters may be proud of a preacher, whose usual compositions display such solidity and arrangement, and must be flattered by this token of his christian affection, which at once manifests the correctness of their taste and his intellectual and amiable qualities.

Each volume contains 25 discourses; the titles of which, on account of the space which they would occupy, we must excuse ourselves from transcribing: but we shall advert to some of the subjects, hoping that we shall afford, even in our limited survey, sufficient evidence of their merit and general tendency.

By the epithet *practical*, in the title, the reader is apprized that the chief object of the author is not controversial but practical divinity. Though, however, Dr. Rees does not formally enter on difficult points, he no where conceals his opinions. When questions come in his way which have created division in the christian church, and which still remain matters of fierce dispute, he speaks his sentiments with a manly ingenuousness, without acrimony or reviling. In the first sermon, on 'the accomplishment of prophecy in the circumstances attending the introduction and progress of Christianity,' from Is. xl. 22, he deduces in an able manner the signal and extensive triumphs of the gospel, under disadvantages and discouragements of the most depressing nature, as a proof of divine interposition in its favour. Sermons II. and III. treat of 'the observance of the Sabbath, as a permanent memorial of the truth of Christianity,' and of 'the object and nature of Christian worship.' The spirituality of the Divine Nature (John iv. 24. *God is a spirit*, &c.) is discussed in the last of these discourses; and here the preacher furnishes a philosophic objection to what is held by many as a mysterious article of faith, and gives that view of the Deity which requires and justifies spiritual worship. To this kind of devotion, Dr. R. adds, 'we may justly appropriate the denomination of *truth*; the distinguishing character of which is the conformity of principles, dispositions, and actions, to the nature of things, and the relations that subsist between God and man.' Of such a religion, no man of science can be ashamed; and by such a worship, all who feel its power must be advanced in wisdom and in virtue.

We pass over the two sermons on the evidences and practical influence of the Resurrection of Christ, notwithstanding their merit, because we have lately furnished an article on this subject;

subject; and we must also omit any distinct notice of those on 'the reasonableness of Faith,' on 'Christian hope,' on 'mutual Love' and on 'a wounded Spirit,' in order to obtain room for an extract of some length from sermon 9, intitled 'a preservative against mistakes with regard to the nature and efficacy of Repentance;' from Luke xv. 31. Not one of the modern writers, who have treated this topic, has placed it in a clearer light than Dr. Rees:

'Some persons, not duly considering the principal design of this parable of the Prodigal Son, as well as of other passages, that represent, in a manner the most forcible and satisfactory, the placability of God and his readiness to forgive true penitents, have deduced from them a very unwarrantable inference. Not satisfied with the only conclusion that can be justly drawn from such passages; that God is mercifully disposed to pardon repenting sinners; they have represented repentance as more acceptable and pleasing to God than a course of uniform obedience. Because the passions and feelings of penitent transgressors are more sensibly excited; because they produce a more observable effect; because persons in this state are more visibly solicitous to obtain pardon and favour; because their zeal is awakened by a sense of their danger, and by a concern to escape it; and because their change of conduct attracts notice; repentance has been thought more deserving of approbation and praise than the calm, steady, progressive practice of piety and virtue. It has received from the multitude a degree of applause, which has not been commonly bestowed on the conduct of those, who have seldom deviated from the path of duty; who have pursued, with few intermissions and failings, a regular course of unoffending and irreproachable virtue; or who have had, comparatively, no occasion for repentance, or, at least, for any very observable change in their disposition or practice. There are many, I trust, of this character; who, under the influence of religious principles, imbibed in their youth and cherished in maturer years, have been preserved from any very culpable, flagrant, and repeated violation of their duty either to God or man. Although the most blameless and exemplary are subject to failings and imperfections, yet as they are neither wilful nor habitual, the gracious Being, who knows our frame, overlooks and forgives them.

'Repentance, or what has been so called, is sometimes the mere emotion of the animal feelings and passions, produced by the operation of mechanical causes, and subsiding almost as suddenly as it was excited, without any permanent effect either on the judgment or the conduct. By this kind of repentance some persons have been deluded. They have called it conversion, and they have supposed it to be an instantaneous act, proceeding from the irresistible influence of divine grace, and transforming the vilest sinners into saints, and evincing their title through faith in the merits of the Redeemer to pardoning mercy and everlasting salvation. But supposing that there is no misconception or delusion in the case, shall any say, that the repentance of those who have been wilful, deliberate, and continued transgressors, however sincere in its principle and durable in effect, is more

acceptable to God or more beneficial to man than the character which we have just described? Is there no difference of character among sinners themselves, previously to their repentance? Are there no degrees of depravity and vice among transgressors? Is not the conduct of some more aggravated and more atrocious than that of others? Can we imagine that a just and holy God does not perceive or that he does not regard the various gradations of criminality and guilt? Nevertheless we should be apt to imagine, from adverting to the language of some of the most popular preachers, that all sinners are alike in the divine estimation; and that the most culpable and profligate are the most likely to obtain mercy; and that sinners of any class, who repent, are more acceptable to God than the unoffending and virtuous. No notions, whatever sanction they may have received from the delusion of enthusiasm, can be more erroneous or more pernicious. Innocence is undoubtedly preferable to repentance. It is better not to offend than to be sorry for having offended; as it is more desirable never to be ill than to recover from a painful and dangerous disorder. The conduct of those who, in the general course of their lives, avoid the practice of iniquity and maintain an irreproachable character, is unquestionably more pleasing to God and more estimable in the judgment of sober reason than the contrition and good resolution and actual reformation of sincere penitents. When men have neglected their duty and transgressed the divine law, it is their wisdom to repent of their folly and to amend their lives; and they may think themselves happy that they are allowed the privilege of repentance. But they would have been much more wise and more happy, if their conduct had given no occasion for that regret and sorrow, for that anxiety and disquietude, which are inseparable from true repentance; and which in a degree must correspond to the nature and aggravation of their preceding crimes.

'Far be it from me to discourage the hope of any true penitent! and yet it is necessary to guard against the pernicious effects of mistaken notions on this subject. The parable of the prodigal son has led some persons to imagine, that God is better pleased with the return of sinners to their duty, after having long neglected it, than with the continued obedience of those who have never or seldom offended. This erroneous principle has encouraged the presumption of transgressors; flattered them with vain and delusive hopes; induced them to defer repentance to an uncertain futurity; and at the close of a mis-spent life inspired them with a fallacious confidence in the divine mercy and favour. Conceiving that their character and state depend merely on their penitence, and that they shall be equally acceptable in the sight of God with those, who have devoted their lives to his service; they turn a deaf ear to every counsel of religious wisdom, and persist in a course of iniquity, till those awful circumstances occur, in which it will be necessary for them to avert the displeasure and to secure the favour of the Almighty. Repentance in their creed is the whole of religious virtue. This, they suppose, will produce an instantaneous and entire change in their disposition and character; and when danger is inevitable, this will be a safe refuge to which they can recur.

'If

'If there be any fallacy that has multiplied the dreadful hazards of that which has been usually called a death-bed repentance more than any other; that has made men heedless and unconcerned about their conduct in the progress of their lives, and flattered them with the hope of being secure in the final issue: it is this:—a mistaken notion of the nature of true repentance; of the rank that belongs to it in the scale of human duties; of the fruits and effects that ought to accompany it; and of the degree of estimation and value, in which it is regarded by the supreme, impartial, and infallible sovereign and judge. If mere repentance claims the distinguished privilege and benefit, which the negligence and presumption of too many seem to ascribe to it; if it be a refuge so secure, as they apprehend; if it constitute so complete a qualification for divine favour and future felicity, as they imagine; if it may be admitted as a substitute for uniform integrity and virtue and for the exemplary conduct of many years, devoted to piety and holiness; if this be the case, how needless the self-denial! how fruitless the labour! how absurd the practice of those, who *by patient continuance in well doing seek for glory, honour, and immortality!* What *awes* * do the government of God, and the prospect of futurity, furnish to restrain the licentious and wicked! what encouragement do they afford to the pious and obedient! what kind of connection remains between the present character and the future recompence either of the good or wicked! How inconsiderable and how uncertain the benefit derived from education and discipline, and from all the means, which divine wisdom and goodness seem to have provided for the cultivation, and defence, and advancement of our piety and virtue! If mere repentance be supposed to answer every purpose of security and happiness, which the anxious minds of intelligent, accountable, and immortal beings can wish to obtain; if it be considered in any other view than as the commencement of a religious and virtuous conduct, to be justified and perfected by a corresponding temper and practice; if it consist, as too many have imagined, in the unavailing regret and ineffective purposes of a dying hour, destitute of every advantage for evincing its sincerity and for producing a permanent influence on the disposition and character;—we mistake its nature; we misapprehend its importance and utility. The repentance, which God will accept, and which will ultimately avail to the happiness of mankind, derives its value and use from the sentiments, in which it originates, and from the real, visible, permanent change, which it produces in the temper and conduct. And in this view of it, the only view which reason and scripture warrant, it can never be preferred, either in the judgment of God or man, to a constant and persevering obedience:—to an obedience, which, notwithstanding all its interruptions and failings, constitutes the character and will ensure the peculiar and distinguishing tokens of divine favour.

'This important and interesting truth, so encouraging to those, who endeavour through life to maintain an irreproachable and exemplary conduct, is evidently implied in the declaration of the text.

* The substantive *awe* does not usually admit the plural number.

Son, thou art ever with me, and all that I have is thine. Notwithstanding the strong expressions of sympathy and affection, with which the father received the repenting prodigal, and testified a disposition to forgive his past errors and transgressions; he assures his elder son, who had never deserted him; who had never wilfully offended him; that he was the object of his unabated and distinguishing regard.

'The moral instruction suggested by the parable is plainly this; that God is inclined to compassionate and forgive penitent transgressors; but at the same time, the objects of his peculiar favour are the upright and obedient.'

How much good sense is contained in this representation! It appears to us to be clear and satisfactory in the highest degree. Well does Dr. R. observe that as, though recovery from sickness is desirable, and a source of congratulation, yet uninterrupted health is preferable, so it is much better not to sin wilfully and habitually, than to flatter ourselves with the hope that we shall live to repent of our conduct. Alas! vice, during the reign of the passions, has a legion of seductive tempters; and the idea of regaining our lost ground by Repentance is more palatable to the sinner, than exhortations to inflexible virtue, because he thus seems to discover the possibility of obtaining a good share of the pleasures of this world, without renouncing those of the next. Such self-deception ought to be discouraged. To the croud it may be palatable: but preachers in Israel should not afford it countenance.

Let us now advance to the next subject,—'the Omnipresence of God,'—which Dr. Rees thus beautifully illustrates:

'As God is infinitely perfect, he must be every where present. If we set limits to the presence of God, we proportionably degrade his excellence and diminish his perfection. If he does not exist and act every where, he is so far an imperfect being. Besides, if we deny the existence and agency of God in any one place, we may deny that he exists and acts in every other; and, consequently, he does not exist by that kind of necessity of nature, which belongs to the underived and self-existent being. But waving these more abstruse demonstrations of the omnipresence of God; demonstrations, however, that are satisfactory and convincing to those who are accustomed to this kind of reasoning; we may observe, that God *is*, wherever he *acts*; and we perceive traces of the divine agency every where around us. The visible creation is in this sense full of God. There is not a point of space; there is not an atom of matter, which does not bear testimony to the presence and influence of God; and as it is a first principle, that no being can act where it is not, the agency of God, which is universal, must evince his universal presence. Wherever we discern an effect there must be a cause; and of course all the matter and the motion which we observe in the universe constrains us to admit the vital presence and constant energy of the Almighty. Without

out God, the universe would be a chaos. The sun and stars, that gild the firmament by day and by night, would be extinguished. The planetary worlds that move around them in regular order and uninterrupted harmony would cease to move; their arrangement would be disturbed; their mutual influence be suspended; and they would no longer serve any of the beneficial purposes to which they are adapted.

'Life, more especially, in all the varieties and gradations of it, from that of the meanest insect to the highest rank of intelligence; in its continuance and in its succession and renewal; indicates the presence and agency of God. Every living being owes the origin and the permanence of its existence to the Deity; and wherever, therefore, life is produced, sustained, and prolonged, we behold undeniable evidence of his presence and influence. Moreover, as the universe, wherever we are able to extend our views, exhibits displays of counsel and agency, there must be an intelligent agent, wheresoever we see the effects of wisdom and activity.

'But the declarations and discoveries of revelation, with regard to the omnipresence of God, supersede the necessity of every kind of reasoning. The Scriptures abound with very animated and impressive descriptions of this divine attribute: and we need only peruse them, frequently and seriously, in order to awaken in our minds just conceptions of it, and to render the sentiments we thus acquire permanently beneficial. *Whither*, says the Psalmist, *shall I go from thy spirit*, i. e. from thee, *or whither shall I flee from thy presence? If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there; if I make my bed in hell*, or in the grave, *behold, thou art there. If I take the wings of the morning, and dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea, even there shall thy hand lead me; and thy right hand shall hold me. If I say, surely the darkness shall cover me, even the night shall be light about me; yea, the darkness hideth not from thee; but the night shineth as the day. The darkness and the light are both alike to thee.*'

The inferences which the preacher makes from this sublime doctrine are admirable, and his conclusion forcibly applies it. 'Practical Atheism,'—'the stages in the Progress of Vice,' 'the folly and danger of Procrastination,'—'the importance of adapting the Temper to the condition,'—'the benefit of Associating with the Wise and Good,'—and 'the folly and danger of the reverse,'—are topics (with others) in the first volume, on which many excellent observations occur.

Among the interesting subjects of the second volume, we shall specify the following;—'The wisdom and duty of a persevering profession of Christianity,'—'the victory of Faith,'—'the credibility of a Future Life,'—'the gain of Godliness with Contentment,—'the principles of christian Fortitude and Self-possession,—'the unequal distributions of Providence,'—'the excellence of the Human Frame and Faculties,—'a caution against Pride,'—'a meek and placable Temper recommended,'—and

and 'Sensibility and Sympathy recommended from the Example and Doctrine of Christ.' The subject last mentioned is the title of the IXth sermon, and the sentiments which it contains are as amiable as those in the discourse on 'Unity among Christians' are liberal.

Only one more extract, however, can we admit, and it shall be from the discourse (No. 20) on 'the excellence of the Human Frame and Faculties,' in which Dr. Rees exposes the absurdity of those degrading views of human nature which some preachers display with the most complacent satisfaction; as if they honoured the Deity by vilifying his *chief work in this world*, and prepared Man for great exertion, by telling him that he was "naturally incapable of thinking or doing any thing that was good." We will not assert that this sermon is *the gem of the first water* in the whole collection: but we may safely pronounce it to be throughout truly creditable to the preacher. He contemplates man in his corporeal frame, in his intellectual faculties, in his moral principles, in his social affections, in his capacity for progressive improvement, and in his destination for immortality. We transcribe that portion of it which displays the excellence of our intellectual faculties:

'It is needless now to enter into any discussion concerning the nature of the human soul. Whilst others, however, strenuously contend, that it is no distinct principle of the human frame; that it results from a peculiar organization of matter; and that the doctrine of the soul has been the source of many errors among philosophers and divines: we may be allowed to say, that these assertions are much more easily made than proved; and that both reason and scripture seem to furnish very decisive and satisfactory evidence in favour of the doctrine, which some consider as almost antiquated, and which it is very fashionable to exclude. To me, indeed, the existence of spirit is as easily conceivable as that of matter: and we might as readily dispense with the one as the other. Both are known alike, merely by their properties; their properties are equally discernible; and they seem to be perfectly distinct and indeed incompatible with each other. That the thinking principle should be material is, I confess, a dogma in philosophy, which surpasses my comprehension. That thought, and will, and consciousness should be properties of matter, which is an inert, inactive and divisible mass, itself incapable of beginning, continuing, or changing motion; and that any modification or refinement of matter should produce mental powers and exercises, are propositions, which, however allowed by others, cannot command my assent. Of the existence of one spirit, the source of all being, spiritual or material, and of his action on matter, without any common properties, we are all convinced; and whilst we allow the Deity to be immaterial, many of the difficulties that attend the doctrine of a separate spirit in man are capable of being satisfactorily resolved. But without enlarging in this way, we may observe,

"That the intellectual faculties of man, from whatever source they are derived, constitute the chief dignity of his nature. It is by the powers of his understanding that he claims superiority, and exercises dominion in this lower world. His judgment and imagination and memory and will extend the sphere of his knowlege and intercourse, of his activity and enjoyment, far beyond that of any other creatures on earth. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man directs, and controuls, and subdues to his own service and use all other inferior animals, however subtle or however strong; and the knowledge he thus acquires is so much actual power augmented by the concurrence and combination of the powers of other creatures, much more mighty than himself. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man converts the elements of nature, fire, air, and water, and all the productions of the earth, to his own accommodation and enjoyment. This enables him to multiply these means of supply and comfort, by the labour of tillage, by the skill and industry of the artisan and manufacturer, and by the active spirit of commercial intercourse; and when they are acquired and possessed, to provide for their security and defence against the efforts of lawless power, the artifices of fraud, or the more ordinary and more signal vicissitudes and calamities of human life. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that useful arts and sciences are cultivated and promoted:—those sciences and arts that contribute to meliorate the world, to improve the condition of mankind, and to furnish various sources of agreeable amusement, and of refined and rational enjoyment. It is by the exercise of the understanding, that man discovers truth and duty; the principles and obligations of religion; the sanctions and motives of a virtuous conduct; and the means of pursuing and attaining substantial and permanent felicity. In a word, man, by his intellectual faculties, is superior to the brutes: and by the culture and improvement of them, one man is as much superior to another, as the uninstructed barbarian is to his associate of the field or the stall.—It is by the power of the imagination, that we are enabled to admire and enjoy whatever is sublime or beautiful in the works of nature or in the productions of art.—It is by the faculty of memory, that we deduce instruction and entertainment from the records of history and from the review of past events; and that we are enabled to derive useful lessons for the conduct of life, and for the attainment of happiness, from our own observation and experience, or from the experience and observation of others in past ages, and in circumstances similar to our own.—It is by that power which we possess of anticipating futurity, that we can, in many cases, avoid evil and secure good; and that we are able to increase the amount of our present felicity by the hope and prospect of future enjoyment.—It is by that direction and controul, with respect to our own volitions and actions, with which the creator has endowed us, that we become moral and accountable beings; capable of religion and virtue; fit subjects of the moral government of God; responsible for our conduct; self approved in a course of integrity and holy obedience; and meet for obtaining the approbation and applause of our supreme judge in a state of retribution.

"Such

'Such, then, is the dignity attached to our intellectual nature. Such are the honours and prerogatives connected with the mental faculties which God has given us. Such are the benefits and pleasures, which we derive from the cultivation and exercise of which they are capable. It behoves us, therefore, in the contemplation of our intelligent nature, to acknowledge with devout gratitude: *thou, O Lord, hast crowned us with glory and honour.*

'In the survey of our frame, the moral principles, with which we are endowed, merit a distinct consideration. Some portion of intellect has been conceded to brutes; but they possess it in a very low degree and without a corresponding capacity of cultivation and improvement. The grand and discriminating difference, which some have established between brutes and human beings, is that which consists in those moral and religious principles, that pertain, not only by way of eminence, but solely and exclusively to the latter Man alone possesses that degree of understanding and that portion of knowledge which render him capable of religion; and which make him accountable for his conduct. Accordingly his creator has endowed him with those powers and principles, with that sense of good and evil, of honour and shame, of praise and reproach; and with those affections of hope and fear, in the review of his conduct and in the anticipation of its consequences, which evince him to be moral and accountable; and which lay the foundation for those expectations and prospects which divine revelation and the doctrine of the gospel in particular lead him to entertain. The knowledge of the attributes, character, and government of God; of the duties we owe him, and a capacity of performing those duties; a regard to his authority and law, and to his right of prescribing to our conduct; the hope of his approbation and favour, and the dread of his displeasure; and a view to future judgment and retribution, are principles which pertain to man; and they advance him to that rank of intelligence, which is but a *little lower than that of angels.*'

In such a view of the nature of the human constitution, as being crowned with glory and honour, exhortations to piety and virtue have a peculiar fitness. Man thus endowed is a Being formed for the duties of religion, and for the fruition of the bliss which religion promises hereafter.

It is a defect in the printing of these volumes, that in the contents we are not referred to the page in which each sermon commences, and that no marginal numeration occurs.

Art. III. *An Essay on Hydrocephalus Acutus,* or Dropsy in the Brain. By John Cheyne, M.D. 8vo. pp. 218. 8s. Boards. Murray.

The disease of which this volume treats is so rapid in its progress, so fatal in its tendency, and so liable to be mistaken for other affections, which, though resembling it in many leading symptoms, possess a totally different origin,

that we cannot but peruse with great satisfaction any attempt to render us more familiar with its phænomena, and particularly with those of its early stages. Dr. Cheyne professes to write from experience, and his work contains within itself strong evidence of the fact. He informs us that the cases which he details 'are not recollections; nor were they ever in danger of being altered, or even coloured by any prevailing or favourite doctrine. They were invariably drawn up in the bed-chamber of the patient, and present a faithful account of every symptom and circumstance that attended the disease. They may, perhaps, appear to others to authorize conclusions different from what I have drawn: my reasoning may be wrong, but my facts may be implicitly relied on.'

After some remarks on the name of the disease, and on the difficulty which has always subsisted in composing a distinct account of it, the author endeavours to remove or to diminish this difficulty, by proposing a new arrangement of its several forms, concerning the value of which he expresses himself with much confidence, as being neither 'artificial nor arbitrary.' According to this new arrangement the malady is divided into three species, each of which he then attempts to delineate. The first supplies an accurate representation of the disease in the form in which it usually occurs; the 2d. seems to differ from the first only in being more rapid in its progress, and more violent in some of its symptoms; and the 3d. consists of those cases which have been immediately preceded by some other complaint, and which Dr. Cheyne considers 'as an instance of that conversion of diseases, which arises either from the excess or combination of the symptoms of the original complaint, operating upon a habit favourable to the new disorder, or perhaps from the state of the habit produced by the primary giving rise to the consequential disease.' We must confess our doubts respecting both the grounds of this new arrangement and its utility. The first two species, as far as we can perceive, have no diagnostic symptoms, and differ only in degree; so that it must depend entirely on the individual fancy or feelings of every practitioner to determine, whether each case should be placed in the 1st. or the 2d. class, and should be regarded as a mild or a severe instance of the disease. The third species indeed exhibits more variety, at least as far as the previous history is concerned; and this, as throwing light on the constitution of the patient, and as enabling us to judge what may be the effect of particular remedies, is a matter to which we ought always to attend. Beyond it, however, we should not be disposed to follow the author: but, as it is a point to which

he seems to attach considerable importance, we shall let him speak for himself:

'When hydrocephalus arises after an imperfect state of health, as where there had been a scrophulous action which has abated; or where, from predisposition and the anomalism of the symptoms, such action is looked for; or where the child has had some epidemic disease formerly (perhaps many months before,) from which he has not perfectly recovered, or regained sound health; the attack is sometimes made with all the violence which I have described as distinguishing the second form. When, again, the attack comes as the sequel of an acute disease, as fever, hooping-cough, perhaps dentition, or during some actually existing scrophulous disease, then the child almost imperceptibly slips into Hydrocephalus; there are scarcely any of the acute symptoms; and the palsies or convulsions are the first indications of the new disorder.'

Besides this new arrangement of the species of hydrocephalus, Dr. Cheyne adopts an opinion that is to a certain extent novel, respecting the three stages into which the disease was divided by Dr. Whytt, as depending on the changes that are observable in the state of the pulse. These successive changes, first from increased quickness to an unusual degree of slowness, and lastly the return to an increased velocity, may be considered as the regular course of the disease, when it exists in its most exquisite form: but, as the author remarks, the student will be disappointed if he expects them to follow each other in a regular progress. However, admitting that they are present when the disease assumes its complete character, Dr. Cheyne thinks that it is useful to attend to them, as indicating the alterations which are produced in the nervous system; and, attributing them entirely to this source, he designates them under the following titles; 1st. the stage of increased sensibility, 2d. the stage of decreased sensibility, and 3d. the paralytic or convulsed stage. To this new nomenclature, objections may be made, both as to its accuracy and as to its practical utility. We are not prepared to assent to the supposition that the nervous system is the primary or chief seat of disease, at least in the first stage; and consequently we must object to the malady being ascribed to an increase of sensibility. We likewise demur to the title of *convulsive stage*, as applied to the termination of the complaint, since it would intimate that convulsions occur only at the termination.

We have dwelt thus long on Dr. C.'s preliminary matter, not that we deem it the most important part of his work, but because it contains some new views of the disease; and because, how much soever he may profess to diregard hypo-

thesis, we think that he has not altogether preserved himself from being influenced by it. This is an unfortunate circumstance, not merely from the general fact that medical hypothesis is seldom of much *immediate* advantage in regulating our practice, but because this volume contains so much of what must be regarded as the result of observation, that the reader might be led to suppose that the whole of the remarks are ultimately derived from this source.

In the descriptive parts, we have every reason to be satisfied with the accuracy of our guide. A considerable share of the merit of Dr. Cheyne's performance depends on the history which he gives of the constitution of his patients, and the state of their health previously to the immediate attack of hydrocephalus. Information of this kind is always valuable, and in this case particularly useful. Every circumstance respecting hydrocephalus tends to prove, that it can only be successfully combated by opposing it in its commencement; while, by an attention to the nature of the constitutions which are obnoxious to its attacks, we may perhaps entirely prevent its occurrence. The author is anxious to establish the connection between hydrocephalus and scrophula: the former, he says, 'chiefly falls upon the children of families having a strumous taint; at least upon children having those peculiarities of skin, complexion, and features which indicate scrophula; and sometimes it attaches itself to particular families. I have attended two families, in one of which four children, in the other three, died of this disease; and I have heard of an unfortunate father who lost eleven children *of* (by) hydrocephalus.' He afterward adds; 'I can affirm, from extensive and careful observation, that not only are children in whom scrophula is active very liable to hydrocephalus, but conversely, that all the symptoms of hydrocephalus are sometimes exchanged for a scrophulous disease.' We are glad to see this opinion so clearly brought into view; observation will easily decide the point; and, if once proved, it will lead to important practical consequences. We confess that, at present, we are scarcely prepared to coincide with the author: but we forbear to say more on this subject, because our experience has not been hitherto directed to it with that minuteness which, we are persuaded, has been bestowed on it by Dr. Cheyne.

Another circumstance, which the author is anxious to establish, and which (like the last) must tend to important practical results, is the connection between hydrocephalus and the peculiar state of the abdominal viscera. That in hydrocephalus the bowels are uncommonly torpid, and that the evacuations generally exhibit an unnatural appearance, are

facts

facts which did not escape the observation of the first writers on this disease; and the sagacious mind of Dr. Hamilton has been peculiarly occupied on this point. Dr. Cheyne has, however, insisted still more strongly on the connection between the diseased states of the abdominal viscera and the brain; and indeed he seems to regard them as standing to each other in the relation of cause and effect. This circumstance, like the one mentioned above, may be easily established or controverted by future observation, and will also materially influence our practice.

In order to enable our readers to judge of the author's talent for description, we lay before them his account of the appearances exhibited on dissection, both of the brain and of the abdominal viscera:

'Upon dissection, we generally find within the cranium, the veins, particularly those of the membranes on the surface of the brain and lining of the ventricles, gorged with dark-coloured blood; sometimes considerable adhesion between and thickening of the membranes, and minute and florid vessels upon the pia mater. The ventricles we find to contain from two to six ounces of limpid serum; also fluid, in a small quantity, under the tunica arachnoides, both above and at the base of the brain. The substance of the brain is generally soft and blanched, fimbriated, and particularly soft where it forms the ventricles. The substance of the fornix is often like a soft curd. In the abdomen, I have found the intestines inflamed and constricted from spasm, and the surface of the liver of a bright red colour, abounding in minute vessels; and sometimes extensively adhering to the peritoneum. In several dissections, I have found the surface of the liver studded with small white tubercles, not larger than a grain of mustard. The glands of the mesentery are often diseased, as is evinced by their enlargement, and the caseous depositions which we find in the substance of the glands.'

The diagnosis of hydrocephalus has been generally considered as peculiarly difficult, and it is a subject on which Dr. Cheyne bestows considerable attention. From the remittent fever of infants, it is distinguished by the complete and regular intermissions which take place in this latter disease: but it appears less easy to discriminate between hydrocephalus and the state which is induced by a disorder of the digestive organs. Perhaps it is not possible to lay down any decisive marks, by which we may be assured whether the primary symptoms proceed from an affection of the brain, or from that of the alimentary canal. Dr. C. indeed supposes the existence of such a direct sympathy between these parts, that a disease which originates in the bowels may be transferred or communicated to the brain, so as to form the complete hydrocephalic state. He gives his reasons for this opinion at full

length; and they appear so plausible, that we trust the subject will be carefully followed up by succeeding observers.

Dr. C. next enters into a disquisition respecting the pathology of the disease. He freely controverts the opinions of Whytt and Fothergill, that it was nothing more than a dropsy of the brain; and also that of Darwin, who considers it as a disease of the lymphatics. He next discusses the merit of Dr. Quin's hypothesis, which is at present very generally adopted, that the effusion of water into the ventricles of the brain is the effect of a previous morbid accumulation of blood in the vessels, sometimes proceeding to a degree of inflammation. This hypothesis Dr. Cheyne endeavours to overthrow: but we confess that we do not see much force in his objections; nor do we think that the theory which he substitutes for it is in any respect preferable:

'In this disease, (he says) there is produced a venous congestion, in addition to, and probably arising from, the increased arterial action: that the effusion of serous fluid arises from this venous congestion: that this effusion has a tendency to counteract the baleful effects of the increased action, and to retard the fatal termination of the disease; of course that the effusion into the ventricles is not the cause of the violent symptoms; and that the increased arterial action, though perhaps varied, does not cease when the congestion and effusion have taken place.'

Dr. Cheyne appears to us more successful in combating the opinion proposed by Dr. Rush, that hydrocephalus is only a less degree of phrenitis: the parallel which is drawn between the two is judicious; and it proves decidedly an essential difference between them.

The indications of cure, which the author points out, strike us as too numerous and indistinct: they essentially consist in the removal of every irritation which may act by sympathy on the brain, in diminishing the increased circulation within the head, and in substituting a new action of the vessels. The purgative plan of course constitutes the first and perhaps the most important part of the treatment; it must be pursued with steadiness; and it may be carried to a great length without inducing debility. After our attempts to bring the alimentary canal into a proper state, we are to direct our attention more immediately to the head; topical bleeding and blisters are then adopted; and the constitutional operation of mercury is strongly enforced. The principal novelty of the treatment consists in the extent to which purgatives are carried.

This volume concludes with a number of cases, which are arranged according to the three species into which the author divides

divides the disease. They are detailed with much minuteness, and are particularly valuable on account of the attention which is paid to the previous history of the patients: indeed, this part constitutes the great merit of the work, since we were already in possession of abundance of cases of the fully formed disease. Although we are disposed to differ from the author on some points which he regards as important, we have a very favourable opinion of his performance; and we recommend it as containing a body of useful information, and as immediately tending to perfect our knowlege of the treatment of the malady to which it relates.

ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Sussex:* Drawn up for the Board of Agriculture and general Improvement. By the Rev. Arthur Young. 8vo. pp. 472. 14s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1808.

FROM a reporter of the agricultural state of an English county, some information may fairly be expected concerning the means which he has employed to qualify himself for the task, the time which he has occupied in the survey, the assistance which he has obtained from previous statements, and the aids of other kinds with which he has been favoured. Nothing of this sort, however, is communicated in the present instance; nor is the work introduced by any prefatory matter. We should have been glad to have found that an accurate admeasurement of the county had accompanied a patient survey; and that a map of Sussex, worthy of the Board of Agriculture, had illustrated its geology: but we are disappointed in all these respects; though in point of plates representing barns and barn-floors, waggons, ploughs, harrows, weed-extirpators, farm-yards, piggeries, poor-houses, cattle, &c. we are well supplied, the number being 21.

The arrangement of materials is similar in this volume to that of all the other county-surveys; and the task which now devolves on us therefore resembles that which works of the same nature have formerly imposed. Minutely to specify the various information, given in the several chapters and subdivisions, would force us to a prolixity which is incompatible with our multifarious engagements: we must consequently request the reader to be satisfied with a few of the most interesting specimens; and the first in this view is that part of the Report which details the geographical state and circumstances of the county.

Sussex

'**Sussex** is a maritime county, bounded on the west by Hampshire, on the north by Surrey, on the north-east and east by Kent, and on the south by the British Channel.

'It contains, according to the mensuration in Templeman's Tables, 1416 square miles, and 1,140,000 acres: the extent, by the same authority, is 65 miles, and the breadth 26. But, according to this calculation, the real length is considerably under-rated, whilst the breadth is increased; which we find to be the case by later, and more accurate surveys. Another calculation reduces the number of acres to 908,952; both of which are confessedly erroneous.

'The length of this county, as measured from Emsworth to Kent-ditch, extends 76 miles, and the medium breadth falls short of 20. The superficial contents amount to 933,360, and each parish averages 2982 acres.

'The artificial divisions of the county are comprehended in six rapes: those of Chichester, Arundel, and Bramber, form the western division, and in which the quarter-sessions are held at Chichester, Midhurst, Petworth, and Horsham; Lewes, Pevensey, and Hastings rapes, form the eastern quarter of the county, for which the quarter-sessions are always held at Lewes. The number of parishes in the county are 313.

'The climate in the western part of the maritime district is very warm, and highly favourable to the powers of vegetation. But upon the bleak situation of the South Down hills, exposed to the south-west, the winds have been known to strip the thatch off corn-stacks, and the covering from all the thatched buildings; and it has sometimes happened, that farmers have suffered considerable losses by the violence of these westerly gales in harvest, blowing the standing corn out of the ear, and doing other damage. When impregnated with saline particles, occasioned by the west and south-west winds beating the spray against the beach, all the hedges and trees on the windward side are destroyed, and, generally speaking, the foliage wears the aspect of its wintry dress. The hedges seem to be cut by the spray, as if it were artificially; and in very exposed situations it penetrates the houses, though built with brick, even at a considerable distance from the coast. The consequence of this has been, that the greatest part of the buildings in the district are situated in hollow protected situations, in order to shelter them from these distressing consequences.

'The investigation of the nature and properties of the varieties of soil, in this or any other county, so as accurately to chalk out the line where one soil ends and another begins, can be thoroughly made only by those who have a most exact and intimate knowledge of the county. In attempting to give the Board this information, it appeared that the variations would be more clearly traced out, and more accurately defined, by a map of the soil, than any other mode that could be adopted; sensible, however, at the same time, that it will be but imperfect, and liable to errors which are unavoidable.

'The different soils of chalk, clay, sand, loam, and gravel, are found in this county.

'The

'The first is nearly the universal soil of the South Down hills; the second, in general, of the Weald; the third principally occupies the north side of the county; the fourth is found on the south side of the hills; and the last lies between the rich loam of the coast and the chalk.

'The soil of the South Downs varies according to its situation. On the summit is usually found (more especially in the eastern parts) a very sleet earth; the substratum chalk, and over that a surface of chalk rubble, covered with a light stratum of vegetable calcareous mould. Sometimes along the summit of the Downs there is merely a covering of flints, upon which the turf spontaneously grows. Advancing down the hills, the soil becomes of a deeper staple, and at the bottom is every where a surface of very good depth for ploughing. Here the loam is excellent, nine or ten inches in depth, and the chalk hardish and broken, and mixed with loam in the interstices, to the depth of some feet, which must make it admirable land for sainfoin.

'West of the river Arun, the soil above the chalk is very gravelly, intermixed with large flints. Between the rivers Adur and Ouse, a substratum of reddish sand is discovered; the usual depth of the soil above the chalk, varies in almost every acre of land, from one inch to a foot. The general average between Eastbourne and Shoreham, does not exceed five inches. West of Shoreham the staple is deeper, and between Arundel and Hampshire the soil is deeper still.

'At the northern extremity of these chalk hills, and usually extending the same length as the Downs, is a slip of very rich and stiff arable land, but of very inconsiderable breadth: it runs for some distance into the vale, before it meets the clay.

'South of these hills is an extensive arable vale of singular fertility. This maritime district, extending from Brighthelmstone to Emsworth, 36 miles, is at first of a very trifling breadth, between Brighton and Shoreham. The nature of this soil, which is probably equal to any in the kingdom, is a rich loam, either upon a reddish brick earth, or gravel; the general depth of the upper soil varying from ten to sixteen inches.

'Between this maritime district and the South Downs runs a vein of land, not equal to the foregoing in richness, but admirable land for the turnip husbandry.

'In the line from Chichester to Emsworth, north of the road, we meet with the same kind land for turnips and barley.

'The soil of the Weald is generally a very stiff loam upon a brick clay bottom, and that again upon sand-stone. Upon the range of hills running through the county in a north-west direction, the soil is different. It is here either sandy loam upon a sandy grit-stone, or it is a very poor black vegetable sand on a soft clay marl. A great proportion of these hills is nothing better than the poorest barren sand. St. Leonard's Forest contains 10,000 acres of it, and Ashdown 18,000 more, besides many thousand acres more in various other parts of the county.

'So predominant is the timber and wood of one sort or another in the Weald, that when viewed from the South Downs, or any eminence

nence in the neighbourhood, it presents to the eye hardly any other prospect but a mass of wood. This is to be ascribed to the great extent and quantity of wood; preserved by a custom of a nature so extraordinary, that it is not a little surprising no steps have been taken to put an end to it.

'Besides the soils already treated of, there is a large tract of marsh land adjacent to the sea-coast between the eastern extremity of the South Downs and Kent. The soil is a composition of rotten vegetables, intermixed with sand and other matter, collected from the floods and filth which settle on the surface. In Lewes Level this vegetable mould is at least twelve inches in thickness.

'In Pevensey Level it is many feet deep, and under it is a very heavy black silt, intermixed with various sorts of shells. Water-logs, stumps of trees, and timber, have been dug from Pevensey Level; trees, each containing one load, cubic measure, have been taken from Lewes marshes.'

These passages contain a tolerable account of the surface of the county; to which we may add, under the head of Minerals, that Sussex produces ordinary limestone, marble of a beautiful kind, called Petworth marble, iron-stone, with chalk, marl, and fuller's earth. Its rivers are not considerable: but the chief are the Ouse, the Adur, and the Arun.

The chapter on the *State of Property* is very short. It informs us that the largest estate does not exceed 7500l. a year; and it pays a merited compliment to the spirited and scientific exertions of the Earl of Egremont and of Lord Sheffield, in the line of agricultural improvement. We read not only of seats of the nobility and gentry, but of the comfortable cottages of the poor; who are said to be in more eligible circumstances in Sussex, than in many other parts of England, though this account does not altogether tally with subsequent statements.

Under the head of *Mode of Occupancy*, the size of farms in this county is given; and Mr. Young discusses the question respecting the policy of encouraging small in preference to large farms, deciding in favour of the latter as productive of more food for man. Small holdings, he contends, are injurious to the occupiers, cause more horses to be kept than are necessary, and leave a less surplus to be brought to market. Yet he is not desirous of seeing only large occupiers, but justly remarks that, 'without doubt, the wisest measure is to leave the size of farms to find their own level, unshackled by laws, unlimited in extent, for capitals of all sorts to find employment.'

The following Table, exhibiting a statement of the rent, produce, and division of land in the county of Sussex, is an useful document:

'Down

	Acres.			£.		£.
Down Land,	68,000	at 7s.	is	23,800	at 5 cents	71,400
Rich arable,	100,000	— 20s.	—	100,000	— 5 —	500,000
Marsh,	30,000	— 25s.	—	37,500	— 2½ —	75,000
Waste,	110,000	— 1s. 6d.	—	8250	— 1½ —	12,375
Arable and pasture in the Weald,	425,000	— 12s.	—	255,000	— 3 —	765,000
Woods, &c.	170,000	— 8s.	—	68,000	— 2 —	136,000
	503,000			£. 492,550		£ 1,559,775

'The remainder is composed of water, roads, buildings, &c. so that the general rent is 492,550*l.* or 19*s.* per acre, including all sorts of land; and the produce 1,559,775*l.*'

We pass over Mr. Young's remarks on Tithes, though they are liberal, in order to advert to a still more interesting subject, viz. the Poor-rates:

'The rates for the maintenance of the poor in Sussex, collectively taken, are not comparatively so high as in other counties where manufactures prevail. But the increase of them in almost every district of the kingdom is truly alarming, and operates as a most discouraging check to agricultural exertion, at a time when the comforts accruing to the poor are inversely as the increase of rates. From an inspection of the rate-books in various parts of the county, it establishes the fact, of a considerable increase having almost invariably arisen. Until gentlemen of liberal education and independent fortune, in their respective parishes, attend more closely to the concerns of the poor, they may surely be said to connive at the evil. But this burthen, so alarming in its magnitude, and so distressing in its consequences, lies deeper than this. The system of the poor-laws perhaps needs revision, before any radical remedy will succeed. It is a growing evil, which should be timely curbed by legislative interference. Temporary laws enacted upon the spur of the moment, for the purpose of warding off present inconveniences, and removing the evil day out of sight, cannot fail of proving unsuccessful. By the multiplication of acts, difficulties are entailed, the whole system becomes complex, and the execution sometimes impracticable.'

No doubt, the system is radically defective; and the very charity which many persons affect towards the poor originates in a motive not rightly appreciated. It is better to prevent poverty than first to create it and then to provide for it. An honest labourer does not merit to be ranked among objects of charity; and by paying him for labour, partly in the form of wages and partly in the shape of a donation issuing out of the poor-rates, we proceed in a disingenuous mode of treating him, which by degrees forces him to all the low tricks of the professed pauper. While, however, our present miserable

plan

plan of poor-management continues, the spirited exertions of gentlemen may effect considerable good: but alas! gentlemen are soon discouraged by the insults which they receive at common parochial vestries; and, unable to brook affronts from persons who are beneath them, they retire from the contest, leaving interested individuals to manage the concerns of the parish to their own advantage.

In the chapter on *Inclosures*, the Reporter strongly condemns the prevalent custom of the Sussex *shaws*, or of surrounding the fields appropriated to the growth of corn by broad sylvan belts.

A great variety of objects occur in the chapters on *Arable and Pasture Lands*: but the notices in most instances are not new; and the few topics which we can specify will be sufficient for our purpose. An indirect compliment seems to be paid to the Sussex farmers as singularly erudite; since, under the head of *feeding*, Mr. Young lectures them in Greek, without affronting them by a translation.

'The custom of feeding the young wheat is practised in various parts of Sussex. Upon the rich arable vale upon the coast, sheep are turned into the wheat from Christmas to March. Many farmers have thought that the wheats are the stiffer, and rise more abundant for this practice. The truth appears to be, that this is done not so much to benefit the wheat, as through mere necessity; since it is allowed, that in proportion to the scarcity of turnips, and other artificial food, will this practice be in vogue. Εν δε ταις αγαθαις χωραις προς το μη φυλλομανειν κινημασι και επικυρωσι τον σιτον.

'Meadow and pasture, in various parts of Sussex, is so small in quantity, that it requires a greater abundance of artificial provision, and brought into cultivation in a different rotation, to keep sheep in much greater numbers; and we see, that to feed the present stock, is sometimes found to be a matter of no small difficulty, and highly hazardous: so that the resort of the farmer is to turn his sheep upon his wheat, which at best is a measure of questionable policy. Sheep are often turned into the wheat to tread and bind it, and give the soil a cohesion grateful to that plant.'

Mr. Y. offers no remark on the importance of securing the wheat, after it is cut and shocked, from the effects of heavy and continued rains, in the manner which is practised in the Northern counties: but he recommends the use of the Thrashing Machine, as obtaining one pint and a half more from every truss of straw than is acquired by the use of the flail. This saving on large farms must be considerable; and other reasons may also be urged in favour of this clean working and expeditious machine; but it can never be adopted by the small farmer.

We find a section on the *Manufacture of Bread*, which contains the following recipe for making a substitute for Yeast:

'Three pounds of potatoes put into three pints of water, boiled till it becomes a mash, then taken off the fire, and the liquor and potatoes strained through a cullender: one pint, or rather more, of milk is then mixed with it, and left to ferment, and this quantity is sufficient for a bushel of flour.'

Among the crops not usually cultivated, *Rhubarb*, and the *Papaver somniferum*, are mentioned; and as being curiosities we shall extract the sections:

'The Earl of Egremont cultivates the *Rheum palmatum* for medicinal uses, and has it dried and cured in as good order and preservation, as any imported from abroad. It is taken out of the ground in autumn, after standing seven or eight years; it is then washed of the dirt, and dried, either in the sun, or laid over the flues in the hot-houses, after having been cut into pieces. Mr. Andre, the domestic surgeon and apothecary, uses no other, and finds no difference between this and the foreign. A considerable saving might be made in the importation of *rhubarb*, if others cultivated it for like purposes.

'Opium.—The largest quantity of this invaluable drug that was ever cured in this country, was raised in 1797 from the Earl of Egremont's garden at Petworth; and the fact now indeed thoroughly ascertained, that all the foreign opium is highly adulterated, renders it an object of immense consequence to encourage the domestic growth. Mr. Andre is convinced, that in all his practice, he never made use of any of this drug that could be compared with this. The operation of collecting the produce, is effected by a gentle incision on the heads, as they grow, with a knife or other sharp instrument, which is frequently repeated; and the juices which exude from the wound, are scraped into an earthen vessel, dried by the sun, and preserved for use.'

A letter communicated by Lord Egremont to the Reporter recommends, at the time of stacking *Hay*, to sprinkle the layers of the rick with *linseed oil*, in the proportion of one quart to a ton; which is said to render the hay 'very moist and clammy,' and to fatten cattle and sheep very fast, but not to be good for horses.

To a nation which is celebrated for maritime strength, and whose "wooden walls" are its chief defence, a brief extract relative to the Woods of Sussex cannot be unacceptable:

'The quantity of land cannot be estimated at less than 170 or 180,000 acres; and the quality of the oak-timber may be collected from the circumstance of the Navy-contractors preferring it in all their agreements, and stipulating for Sussex, before every other species of oak. The reigning feature of the Weald is its timber, in which it is enveloped, and overspreads it in every direction, flourishing

ing with great luxuriance, and so naturally adapted to the soil, that if a field were sown with furze only, and live-stock excluded, the ground in the course of a few years would be covered with young oaks, without any trouble or expence of planting.

'Before the Norman Conquest, this part of the kingdom was one continued forest, extending from Hampshire into Kent; and the number of parishes ending with the Saxon word, *hurst*, or wood, are a strong presumption, that they were first cleared and cultivated by settlers from that nation. In the neighbourhood of Sakehurst we find no less than eight adjoining parishes ending with this word. At the Conquest, these woods were valued, not by the quantity of timber, but by the number of swine which the acorns maintained.'

We doubt whether Mr. Young is justified in his assertion at the end of this chapter, that 'the Sussex woods, under proper management, would more than supply the whole Royal Navy.'

It will be sufficient to state, respecting the chapter on *Improvements*, that it contains observations on Draining, Paring and Burning, Weeding, and Watering Meadows, with a long list of Manures.

The article of *Live Stock* makes a very respectable figure in this volume. Two plates represent *Mercury*, a Sussex bull, and *Fair Maid*, a Sussex cow; and two others exhibit a South-down ram and ewe, all in the possession of Mr. Ellman, of Glynd. As the Reporter classes the Sussex red breed of cattle among the best in the kingdom, it may not be amiss to insert a description of a thorough-bred Sussex Ox:

'A thin head, and clean jaw; the horns point forward a little, and then turn upward, thin tapering, and long; the eye large and full; the throat clean, no dew-lap; long and thin in the neck; wide and deep in the shoulders; no projection in the point of the shoulder, when looked at from behind; the fore-legs wide; round and straight in the barrel, and free from a rising back-bone; no hanging heaviness in the belly; wide across the loin; the space between the hip-bone and the first rib very small; the hip-bone not to rise high, but to be large and wide; the loin, and space between the hips, to be flat and wide, but the fore-part of the carcase round; long and straight in the rump, and wide in the tip; the tail to lay (lie) low, for the flesh to swell above it; the legs not too long, neither thick nor thin on the thigh; the leg thin; *that well in the twist*; no fulness in the outside of the thigh, but all of it within; a squareness behind, common in all long-horned beasts, greatly objected to; the finer and thinner in the tail the better. Of these points, the Sussex beasts are apt to be more deficient in the shoulder than in any other part.'

Stall-feeding is recommended, on good principles: but Potatoes, either boiled or raw, are reprobated as food for Cows.

On the subject of working Oxen and Horses, a very important remark occurs:

'Mr.

'Mr Pennington conceives the system of working, only to be profitable whilst the growth of the ox nearly pays for the keeping, and that it cannot do when the ox is hard-worked He thinks that, in the nature of the ox, there are qualities opposite to quick or severe labour; for when the ox is driven beyond his strength or wind, he is rendered unfit for work for a great length of time, and even frequently falls a sacrifice to the exertions of a single hour. When he is brought low in flesh, no art or food will speedily put him into condition. He thinks also, that as the horse is otherwise formed, he will bear the extreme of heat and cold, most frequently without injury, and if brought low by labour, will in a short time, with attention and proper food, recover his flesh.'

These are material facts, which should have their weight in the controversy on this question.

Many pages are occupied on the Sussex breed of sheep: but, as the characters and properties of the South-downers are known to most farmers, and as the details on breed, management, and profit, branch out into various subdivisions, we must refer those to the work itself who are solicitous of information. We pass over other articles of live stock, to notice the section on *Pond-Fish*; which, however unworthy of attention in most other countries as an object of profit, are of some consequence in Sussex:

'The ponds in the Weald are innumerable; and numbers of them date their origin from that part of the county having once been the seat of an extensive iron manufactory, which has now deserted the country; and the mill-ponds now raise large quantities of fish. A Mr. Fenn, of London, has long rented, and is the sole monopolizer of all the fish that are sold in Sussex. Carp is the chief stock; but tench and perch, eels and pike, are raised. A stream should always flow through the pond; and a marley soil is the best. Mr. Milward has drawn carp from his marl-pits 2½lb. a brace, and two inches of fat upon them, but then he feeds with pease. When the waters are drawn off and re-stocked, it is done with stores of a year old, which remain four years: the carp will then be 12 or 13 inches long, and if the water is good, 14 or 15. The usual season for drawing the water, is either autumn or spring: the sale is regulated by measure, from the eye to the fork of the tail. At 12 inches, carp are worth 50*s.* and 3*l.* per hundred; at 15 inches, 6*l.*; at 18 inches, 8*l.* and 9*l.*: a hundred stores will stock an acre; or 35 brace, 10 or 12 inches long, are fully sufficient for a breeding pond. The first year they will be three inches long; second year, 7; third year, 11 or 12; fourth year, 14 or 15. This year they breed.

'Mr. Biddulph has, in Burton-park, a fine reach of water, which yields carp, tench, perch, pike, &c. in great abundance; and as it is an extensive pond, I shall insert some account of the produce:

'March 10, 1789. Number of fish taken out of the Mill-pond, of 50 acres.

Carp,	1517
Tench,	473
Pike,	806
Perch,	50
	2846'

In the chapters on *Rural Economy*, we meet with a table of the prices of labour, judicious remarks on the inadequacy of the wages of agricultural labour to the present high rate of provisions, and some hints on the saving of fuel in cottages; but we think that the reporter has been *hummed* with an account of *a leg of mutton and turnips* boiled in a wooden pail, by means of the tube of a fowling piece inserted at the muzzle in the pail. Such a boiling apparatus surpasses all the experiments of Count Rumford.

Political Economy, as connected with agriculture, embraces the usual subjects of Roads, Canals, Fairs, Manufactures, Poor, and Population. Here Mr. Young resumes the consideration of the actual state of the labouring poor, and affords such a picture as no Christian can contemplate but with painful feelings. He sets out with observing that

'The present state of this class of people is in many parts of England inferior to what every humane person would wish, and much below that condition which they may reasonably expect in so wealthy a community. Too many of their houses are the residence of filth and vermin; their dress insufficient; their minds uneducated, uninstructed; and their children, from insufficiency of earnings, trained to vice; their daughters to follow the easy road to prostitution, and too many of them at last to become injurious, instead of a blessing. Give each man an interest, a stake in the welfare of his country, and we should no longer hear of so many crimes.'

When a fair comparison is made between the incomes and the outgoings of the poor, we shall not be surprized at the misery that prevails. The Reporter gives a table exhibiting at one view the expences and the earnings of six families of labourers by the week and by the year, in the parish of Glynd, in the year 1793; by which it appears that the total annual expence of a family of eight persons was 42l. 14s. 4d. while the total annual earnings were only 28l. 12s.: that a family of 3 persons expended 18l. 1s. 6d., but earned only 13l.: that a family of 6 persons expended 36l. 14s. 2d., and earned only 36l. 8s.: that another family of 6 persons expended 37l. 8s. 10d. and earned only 31l. 4s.: that a family of 7 persons expended

40l. 9s. 11d., and earned only 36l. 8s.; and that a family of three persons expended 23l. 8s. 8d. and earned only 22l. 2s.: so that the deficiency of earnings was in the first instance 14l. 2s. 2d.; in the second 5l. 1s. 6d.; in the third 6s. 2d.; in the fourth 6l. 4s. 10d.; in the fifth 4l. 1s. 11d.; and in the sixth 1l. 6s. 8d. These facts require no comment.—Potatoes mixed with flour are not recommended to the poor as economical food: but the right application of this root, for human provision, is stated to be that of roasting or *baking* it. Though Mr. Young speaks favourably, as far as experiments have gone in Sussex, respecting Houses of Industry, erected at the joint expence of associated parishes, he reprobates the Parish Work-houses as the vilest establishments in the island.—The people in this county are reported to be rapidly multiplying: but the amount of the population is not given.

Among the Obstacles to Improvement the before-mentioned *Shaws*, which surround the inclosures, Common Rights, and Tithes, are specified; the confusion which reigns in the Weights and Measures is lamented, as in other county-reports; and the work concludes with a short chapter on the means of improvement, in which the author, adverting to the overshadowed state of the Weald, recommends its conversion into a grazing district.—An Appendix contains an account of Lord Sheffield's estate in the Weald; and prefixed is a map, containing a sketch of the soil of Sussex.

In this compilation, Mr. Young has acquitted himself with ability. His style is easy; and his principles are those of a liberal and enlightened economist.

ART. V. *A Dictionary of Chemistry and Mineralogy*, with an Account of the Processes employed in many of the most important chemical Manufactures. To which are added a Description of Chemical Apparatus, and various useful Tables of Weights and Measures, chemical Instruments, &c. &c. Illustrated with 15 Engravings. By A. and C. R. Aikin. 4to. 2 Vols. pp about 600 in each. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Arch, and W. Phillips.

IN a modest and well-written preface, the authors of this work point out the principal objects which they have had in view, and state their claims to the attention of the public. They say that they have aimed at giving 'a faithful and sufficiently-detailed description of all the important facts hitherto discovered in the sciences of chemistry and mineralogy, enlarging more particularly on those parts which are of peculiar interest to the manufacturer and practical chemist.' The collateral sciences, such as Geology, Galvanism, &c. are omitted,

and little is inserted on the history of chemistry: but in all the accounts of experiments and processes, they have been studiously minute, so as to render their Dictionary a complete 'Laboratory Guide.' On the subject of the chemical arts and manufactures, they have endeavoured to explain the general principles on which they are conducted, in order that the manufacturer may be enabled to understand the *rationale* of each process, and thus have the best chance of improving it. They declare also that they have been scrupulously exact in obtaining their information from the original sources, when this could be accomplished; and in all the references that are made, the works have been actually consulted by them. A considerable quantity of new matter, likewise, they state, will be found dispersed through the volumes, which is the result of their own experiments, or has been communicated by their friends.

On this plan, Messrs. Aikin profess to have acted; and, after a careful and long-continued examination of their performance, we deem ourselves justified in reporting that they have fully executed their intentions. In both the practical parts of chemistry, viz. that which respects the scientific experimentalist, and that which more immediately refers to the operations of the chemical artist, the volumes will be found highly serviceable; and we know not any modern work which can come into competition with them. In perusing them, we are unavoidably led to contrast them with publications of a similar kind which have lately appeared in France. M. Chaptal's book, intitled "Chemistry applied to the Arts," may be fairly compared with the corresponding articles in this Dictionary; and we have no hesitation in saying that the merit of the English authors will be rendered the more apparent by the comparison. We cannot express our idea of the relative value of the two productions more fully than by observing, that both are strongly tinctured with the national character of the authors; M. Chaptal is verbose, diffuse, and often entertaining, but often inaccurate; Messrs. Aikin are concise, clear, unassuming, and correct.

If we were to specify any parts of these volumes to which we should give the preference, it would be those which treat on subjects of metallurgy, and of the arts connected with this department. The article *Assay* is one of those which we should point out as a model. It occupies ten of the closely printed and capacious pages of which the Dictionary is composed, and is of such a nature as to be incapable of either analysis or abridgement. We should also select the article *Iron* as of great merit, and we think that it may be regarded

as the most complete account of this substance which has ever appeared in print. It is divided into seven sections; the 1st. containing a description of the ores of iron; the 2d., on the analysis and assay of iron ores; the 3d., on the reduction of iron ores; the 4th., on the manufacture and properties of steel; the 5th., on the comparison and analysis of cast iron, bar-iron, and steel; the 6th., on the physical properties of iron and steel; and the 7th., on the chemical properties of iron. The third section is of peculiar interest, and displays not only a laudable industry in the collection of facts, but a profound knowlege of the principles of science.

The authors begin by some remarks on the methods which the antients employed for the reduction of iron ore; which, being less perfect than those that are now in common use, obliged them to employ only the richest kinds, and those that were the most easily worked. The account of this process is taken from Agricola. The modern methods may be properly considered as only two, the difference between which chiefly depends on the nature of the fuel employed, whether charcoal or coal. As a specimen of the former operation, the authors give a minute detail of the process followed in the preparation of the Swedish iron, which is obtained from the magnetic ore. It is first submitted to the roasting furnace, where the small quantity of sulphur and the moisture which it contains are driven off, and it is thus rendered fit for the stamping-mill, where it is reduced to a coarse powder. The shape of the smelting furnace nearly resembles that of two truncated cones, joined base to base, the lower of which is furnished with two openings; through one the blast of air enters, and through the other the melted matter is discharged.

'The furnace is first filled with charcoal alone and well heated, after which alternate charges are added of ore, either alone, or mixed with lime-stone if it requires any flux, and charcoal: the blast is let on and the metal in the ore being highly carbonized in its passage through the upper part of the furnace is readily melted as soon as it arrives in the focus of the blast, whence it subsides in a fluid state to the bottom of the furnace covered with a melted slag. Part of the clay that closes the lower aperture of the furnace is occasionally removed to allow the scoriæ to flow out, and at the end of every ninth hour the iron itself is discharged into a bed of sand where it forms from ten to twelve small pigs. As soon as the iron has flowed out the aperture is closed again, and thus the furnace is kept in incessant activity during the first six months in the year; the other six months are employed in repairing the furnaces, making charcoal, and collecting the requisite provision of wood and ore.'

The iron thus formed into pigs next undergoes the process of refining, by which it is converted into bars; this is ef-

fected by heating it in contact with charcoal a sufficient number of times, and then subjecting it to the action of the hammer.

In Great Britain, where the scarcity of charcoal renders it necessary to employ coal in the manufacture of iron, a different kind of process is adopted; which, as the authors remark, has advantages and disadvantages peculiar to itself. 'If in the quantity of produce from each forge the British claims the superiority, yet this is probably more than counterbalanced by the inferior quality of the metal, the greater multiplicity of apparatus, and consequently the greater capital laid out, and the smaller proportion of iron procured from a given weight of ore.' The genius of our countrymen seems, however, to have been stimulated rather than repressed by these difficulties; and different improvements have been successively made, by which the British manufactured iron has been enabled 'to enter into competition with every other kind except the very best Norwegian and Swedish.' The argillaceous iron-stone is preferred in the coak-furnaces to the hæmatites; because, although the last contains more metallic matter, yet the other is worked to more advantage, and is generally accompanied by beds of coal. The first operation here, as in the former case, is the roasting; by which the ore is deprived of the sulphur, water, inflammable matter, and carbonic acid, which it contained, and is rendered proper for smelting. The smelting-furnace, which is in the form of a four-sided pyramid, is filled with layers of coak, iron-ore, and lime-stone; and the blast and the discharging opening are at a very considerable depth below the part at which the ore is first ignited, so that it arrives at the bottom of the furnace almost saturated with carbon. When it gets to the focus, the limestone acts as a flux, and the earthy particles of the ore form a slag, while the iron separates, and from its superior gravity falls to the lowest part of the furnace. It is let out at proper intervals, and received into furrows of sand to form the pig-iron, or cast into moulds. This is the general outline of the process: but many circumstances are connected with it which influence the result, and on the management of which, in a great measure, depends its complete success. A great point is the nature of the coals that are employed, particularly with respect to their degree of inflammability, and whether they contain any quantity of bituminous matter. When this substance is present, they are rendered less fit for the operation of smelting, in consequence of their cementing into a mass, and thus not permitting the ore to fall down into the blast at regular intervals. It is also essential that the fuel should be perfectly

dry,

dry, and that its quantity should be adapted to the richness of the ore, since otherwise a variable product will be obtained. The fusibility of the ore is an important circumstance; the hæmatites, which is the richest and most fusible ore, and therefore the best to be employed with charcoal, does not answer for the formation of cast iron, when smelted with coak, because it falls to the bottom of the furnace before it has time to imbibe the proper proportion of carbon. A great part of the success of the operation depends on the management of the blast; and this is influenced by its dryness, its temperature, its compression, and its direction. Some of these circumstances are not within the power of the artist, being governed by the weather; and it is accordingly found that a dry frost is more advantageous than either a moist or a hot state of the air, both these latter rendering it less fit for supporting a rapid combustion.

Messrs. Aikin then proceed to offer some remarks on the chemical difference between cast and bar-iron. Although the former substance has not been regularly analyzed, yet from its properties, and from the methods which are used to render it malleable, we may conclude that it consists of a mixture of metallic matter, oxygen, and carbon. To deprive the cast iron of these latter substances, as well as to free it from any accidental impurities which it may contain, is the object of the different refining processes that have been adopted; and which all fundamentally consist in heating the mass in contact with charcoal, and afterward subjecting it to strong pressure, by means of the forge-hammer. Three ways of accomplishing these objects are employed in this country, which have obtained the technical names of *stamping*, *flourishing*, and *puddling*; and each is described by the authors with accuracy. The *stamping* process is the most generally adopted. That which has acquired the name of *flourishing* differs from the former principally in the metal being reduced only to a state of imperfect fusion, while in the refinery, and in its being forged into bars of a peculiar shape. The process of *puddling* is a more recent invention: but we are told that it is coming into general use. The pigs of cast iron are selected, according to their degree of carbonization, which is judged by their external appearance, and are melted into an uniform grey mass.

'A common reverberatory furnace, heated by coal, is now charged with about 2½ cwt. of the half refined grey iron. In a little more than half an hour, the metal will be found to be nearly melted; at this period the flame is turned off, a little water is sprinkled over it, and a workman by introducing an iron bar, or an instrument shaped

like a hoe, through a hole in the side of the furnace, begins to stir the half fluid mass and divide it into small pieces. In the course of about fifty minutes from the commencement of the process, the iron will have been reduced by constant stirring to the consistence of small gravel, and will be considerably cooled. The flame is then turned on again, the workman continuing to stir the metal, and in three minutes time the whole mass becomes soft and semi-fluid, upon which the flame is again turned off. The hottest part of the iron now begins to heave and swell, and emit a deep-blue lambent flame, which appearance is called fermentation: the heaving motion and accompanying flame soon spread over the whole, and the heat of the metal seems to be rather increased than diminished for the next quarter of an hour; after this period the temperature again falls, the blue flame is less vigorous, and in a little more than a quarter of an hour the metal is cooled to a dull red, and the jets of flame are rare and faint. During the whole of the fermentation, the stirring is continued, by which the iron is at length brought to the consistency of sand, it also approaches nearer to the malleable state, and in consequence adheres less than at first to the tool with which it is stirred. During the next half hour the flame is turned off and on several times, a stronger fermentation takes place, and a loud hissing noise is perceived, the lambent flame also becomes of a clearer and lighter blue; the metal begins to clot, and becomes much less fusible and more tenacious than at first; the fermentation then by degrees subsides, the emission of blue flame nearly ceases, the iron is gathered into lumps and beaten with a heavy-headed tool. Finally, the tools are withdrawn, the apertures through which they were worked are closed, and the flame is turned on in full force for six or eight minutes. The pieces being thus brought to a high welding heat are withdrawn and shingled; after this they are again heated and passed through grooved rollers, by which the scoriæ are separated, and the bars thus forcibly compressed acquire a high degree of tenacity.'

Section IV., which contains an account of the manufacture and properties of steel, will be found equally interesting and valuable with the preceding. After some observations on the general properties of steel, the authors proceed with the detail of the different methods that are employed for its formation. The description of the antient process is taken from Agricola. It consisted in fusing together, in a crucible, portions of bar-iron and charcoal, afterward subjecting them to the forge-hammer, and then plunging the metal while hot into cold water. It was then a second time fused with charcoal, again plunged into cold water, and afterward forged into slender bars. What has been called the native steel of Stiria is prepared directly from the ore of that country, which is the spathose iron-stone, nearly in the same manner in which common bar-iron is formed on the continent. The only difference seems to consist in some precautions which are employed in the method of removing the scoriæ, to prevent the

iron

iron from being at the same time decarbonized. When the manufacturer wishes to convert this steel into iron, he removes the carbon from it, by roasting the bars in the reverberatory furnace, and by not adding any charcoal to the refinery. In Norway and Sweden, iron is converted into steel simply by adding a larger quantity of charcoal to the smelting furnace. The process adopted in this country has obtained the name of *cementation*; and it consists in placing layers of charcoal and iron in a furnace shaped like a trough, excluding the action of the air, and then subjecting the whole to a strong red heat for the space of several days. By this operation, the metal imbibes that quantity of carbon which seems to constitute the essential difference between steel and iron; and the steel is still farther perfected, by repeating the fusion and by subsequent hammering. In order to form steel of the very finest quality, different processes are employed by individual manufacturers, which are in some degree kept secret.—The hardening and tempering of steel are next described at considerable length, together with the method of uniting steel and iron; and the section concludes with an account of a peculiar kind of steel, procured from the East Indies, called *Wootz*; which, according to the analysis of Dr. Pearson, seems to differ from common steel only in containing a little of the oxyd of iron.

In the Vth section, 'on the comparison and analysis of cast iron, bar-iron, and steel,' the writers have an opportunity of displaying to great advantage not merely their accurate knowlege of facts, but the extent of their acquaintance with the scientific principles of chemistry. They observe that 'much yet remains to be done, before an entirely satisfactory theory can be formed to account for the different properties possessed by the various kinds of iron and steel.' They propose to shew what progress has been made in the investigation, and to point out those parts in which it is still defective. The first object to ascertain in these analyses is the proportion of pure iron that is found in the different forms under which we usually meet with this metal; and the method adopted for this purpose is to discover the quantity of hydrogen gas given out during the solution of the metal under examination in diluted sulphuric acid, the pure metal being the only part of the compound which has the property of decomposing the water so as to set at liberty the hydrogenous part of it. This mode of analysis, however, is not worthy of implicit reliance, because the hydrogen, during its formation, combines itself to a portion of the carbon which is contained in cast iron and steel, and converts the hydrogen into a hydro-carbonous gas: but it appears

appears that, by employing proper precautions, particularly by conducting the solution at a low temperature, the hydrogen may be obtained in a state of considerable purity; and that the amount of the iron may be learned with at least a tolerable degree of accuracy.

Directions are next given for ascertaining the quantity of carbon contained in a specimen of iron; which method consists in treating it with nitro-muriatic acid, and igniting the residue in a crucible: in this way the greater part of the iron will be dissolved by the acid, and the remainder will be oxidated, while the carbon is entirely consumed. Although it would seem that this kind of analysis might indicate the proportion of iron and carbon with considerable minuteness, yet this does not appear to be the case; and Messrs. Aikin state, as the result of all the experience which we possess on the subject, 'that bar-iron contains a smaller quantity of carbon than the softer varieties of steel, and these again always contain less than the common and finer cast steel; that in the white, the mottled, the grey, and the black varieties of cast iron, the dose of carbon is constantly augmenting, in the last of which the proportion of carbon is probably about $\frac{1}{10}$ of the whole.'

Besides carbon, oxygen is found to be a very frequent constituent of the different varieties of iron; and cast iron, in particular, seems to be highly charged with this principle. The authors ingeniously remark on this subject, that 'it may seem at first a paradox to maintain the co-existence of oxygen and carbon in the same metallic mass, especially considering the great heat to which it is exposed in the process of reduction, since it is an universal and uncontroverted fact that metallic oxyds are decomposed by carbon at a high temperature, the oxygen and carbon uniting together and being dissipated in the form of gas, the metallic regulus remaining behind.' This apparent anomaly is explained by the consideration of the large quantity of matter on which we operate, the coarseness of the process, and the pressure of the superincumbent scoriæ. It is to the escape of this oxygen, in combination with different proportions of carbon, forming either carbonic acid or the gaseous oxyd of carbon, that the kind of fermentation depends, which was described in the operation called *puddling*. Steel is probably entirely free from oxygen; and in this circumstance, together with its greater purity from extraneous substances, it principally differs from cast iron.

We have next some remarks on the action of the vitrifiable earths on iron; on the different results that are obtained from the smelting process, according as coak or charcoal is employed; and on the variations that exist in the visible and other

other physical properties of iron, according to the proportion of carbon which it contains. The section closes with some observations on what have been called hot-short and cold-short iron, the first of which has been supposed to derive its peculiar properties from arsenic, and the latter from phosphoric acid. The present writers seem inclined to doubt the truth of these opinions, though they are supported by the most respectable authorities; and to imagine that the property of iron becoming brittle, when it is cold, may depend simply on the addition of oxygen.

Section VII. contains a correct and luminous account of the operation of the different chemical re-agents on iron, its combustion in oxygen, the action of atmospheric air and water on it, the formation of its different oxyds, its solution in carbonic acid, and the constitution of chalybeate springs. The metallic salt formed by the union of sulphuric acid and iron, —the green vitriol of commerce,—is an important article of manufacture, and is here treated with that minuteness which the authors always bestow on subjects of this description. The salt is usually prepared from iron pyrites; a mineral which, by exposure to the atmosphere, possesses the property of oxygenating the sulphur which it contains, and converting it into sulphuric acid, which then acts on and dissolves the iron. The process of the manufacturer consists in extracting and purifying the sulphat of iron thus spontaneously produced. With the exception of the acetite, which is used by the calico-printers, the sulphat is the only salt of iron that is employed in the arts: but some other preparations of the metal are introduced into the Pharmacopœia; and we must not omit that most valuable of all artificial fluids, ink, which principally consists of the gallate of iron. The sulphurets of iron form an important class of compounds, which in course find a place in this section; and it terminates with a description of the method of coating iron with tin, to form tinned plates, which are so extensively useful in our domestic economy.

From the abstract which we have given of this article, we think that our readers will be enabled to form an idea of the variety of useful information which is imparted in these volumes. We may add that the articles are generally well selected; and that the authors have, for the most part, avoided the practice, which is so frequent in scientific dictionaries, of perpetually referring the reader from place to place, and thus, at every instant, interrupting his progress. This indeed depends very much on the manner in which dictionaries are usually manufactured; since they are, principally a collection of detached

tached fragments, taken verbatim from different sources, and often wholly unconnected with each other. These, however, are productions of a very different stamp from that which is now before us, and which may justly be regarded as an original work, though composed, in a great measure, as every book on general science must be, from the labours of others: because in making use of those labours the writers have exercised their own powers of judgment and selection, have brought into one focus the scattered rays of information, have compared and appreciated opposing hypotheses, and have endeavoured to reconcile such facts as appeared to be discordant.

We do not consider it as necessary to enter into a discussion respecting the merit of the alphabetical form of arrangement. Its defects have been frequently pointed out, and cannot be denied: but it also possesses decided conveniences; and in the present condition of chemistry, as consisting of an immense body of facts, the connecting theory of which is still in an imperfect state, the technical form of a dictionary is less objectionable than it would be in a more finished department of science.

In so extensive a production, and which embraces so great a variety of subjects, it must unavoidably happen that all its parts are not equally good; and perhaps scarcely any two persons would, in all instances, exactly agree in their ideas as to the space that ought to be allotted to each individual article. Although it seems to be very far from the general manner of the present authors, to spin out their subjects to an unreasonable length, yet in a few cases they appear to us to be unnecessarily diffuse. On the other hand, we think that more might frequently have been said respecting the theories which are generally adopted, or even such as have formerly been in vogue, though now discarded. This, we are aware, does not exactly enter into the plan of the authors: but such additions would, in our opinion, have made their work more complete, without adding much to its size. Among minor defects, we may remark that we have, in one or two cases, been referred to articles which do not exist, at least in their proper order; and we have likewise, but very rarely, discovered some slight inaccuracies in the references. As impartial judges we feel it incumbent on us to notice those circumstances which may be regarded as, in any measure, diminishing the value of these volumes: but, at the same time, we acknowlege that their merits so very far exceed their defects, that we feel reluctance in being obliged to bring the latter into notice.

ART.

ART. VI. *Palmerin of England*, by Francis de Morales: corrected by Robert Southey, from the original Portuguese. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE principal testimony in favour of the romance of Palmerin of England is the decision of the Curate of Don Quixote's village; who, on examining the library of that renowned hero, in company with Master Nicholas the Barber, ordered the whole of this chivalric class of books to be burnt, except Amadis of Gaul and Palmerin of England. Of the latter he speaks in rather extravagant terms, calling it a "*cosa unica*," (which Smollet still more extravagantly translates into "an inestimable jewel,") and directing a casket to be made for it, such as that which Alexander found among the spoils of Darius, and set apart in order that the works of Homer might be kept in it. If this really were its character and value in comparison with the rest of the rueful Knight's library, his mental derangement cannot be matter of surprize; since the brain of any ordinary person would much sooner be turned, than it would succeed in endeavouring to collect either tale or moral even from the adventures of Palmerin of England. We shall not, on the present occasion, attempt to give our readers any sketch of these extraordinary events; which would, indeed, be impossible without copying the book, because almost every page contains several incidents, and new circumstances and new characters are constantly introduced; the story rambles unconnectedly from Knights to Giants, — from Giants to Emperors, Queens, and Princesses, — from Palaces to Castles, and from Castles to Enchanted Woods,— and the whole circle of crowned heads, from the Emperor of Constantinople to the Prince of Denmark and that most unhistorical personage King Fabrique of England — nay the whole human race, and all animate and inanimate nature,— are introduced in such rapid succession, that nothing but the book itself can possibly give any idea of its relations.

We acknowlege, therefore, that in our opinion the mere perusal of this production is almost sufficient to reduce the reader to the unhappy condition of the Knight of La Mancha; and we are by no means disposed to undertake an adventure so much in his style, as to attempt to abridge this unique and inestimable portion of his library. Those who are unread in the lore of old romances we most earnestly advise to remain happy in their ignorance; and those, who are in any degree acquainted with such subjects, cannot be supposed to be ignorant of this work. It is, we believe, one of the last of the family; we say *family*, because, like the persons in antient Mythology,

Mythology, the Knights and Heroes of the Romances are all related to each other. For instance, the heroes of the Trojan War were the descendants of those who were engaged in the Argonautic Expedition, and ancestors of those who shine in the early Roman History. In the same manner, the adventures of the Heroes of the French and Spanish Romances are connected together, every later writer tacking his hero to some one who had gone before; till a chain of alliance is formed between all the persons in the world, and it would not be difficult to make out the pedigree from Achilles to Primaleon. Palmerin of England was the son of Don Duardos, (i. e. Edward) of England, by the Princess Flerida, daughter of Palmerin D'Oliva, Emperor of Constantinople. The Emperor had several other sons, (as Palmendos and Primaleon,) all most renowned heroes, whose acts have formed the subjects of several separate Romances; composing altogether a large library of family-history. We discern also a strong family-likeness; "*facies* (*quippe*) *omnibus una*"—as we cannot better explain than in the words of Mr. Southey, in his preface; where (speaking of a French edition of Palmerin d'Oliva) he says;

'I recognize in this edition many of the same prints as are used in the small French edition of Amadis of Greece, p. 2. a copy of which I possess—but have not at hand to give its date. In fact they did for any romance; a lady in child-bed at the beginning,—her trusty damsel going out of the door with a child in her arms, in one compartment; and in another a man riding away to expose it; a battle on horseback; a battle on foot; a battle at sea; a knight and lady kissing; another birth like the first; and at last, the son kneeling for his parents' blessing when the secret is discovered.'

Mr. Southey seems to be perfectly convinced that this work is the production of Francisco de Moraes, a Portugueze, who was Treasurer to Joam 3rd., and professed in the order of Christ April 17, 1566. We own that we are not quite so well satisfied as Mr. S. appears to be with the reasonings by which he arrives at this fact; and we recollect that our worthy and intelligent friend the Curate says that this Romance was supposed to have been written by an ingenious king of Portugal, a mistake (supposing it to be so) for which we do not observe any attempt on the part of Mr. S. to account. We think, indeed, that it is wrong for any one to be very positive, at this time of day, respecting a fact of this description, on which it appears that Cervantes was not informed. Whoever wrote it, the work was first introduced to the English reader by old Anthony Munday and Co. in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. These men appear to have manufactured translations of this kind,

kind, much in the same way that prevails in the concoction of Pantomimes; rendering just as much as they could understand, and supplying the place of what they could not comprehend by the substitution of slaps on the back, cuttings off of legs and arms, beating out of eyes, and other minutiæ equally pleasant and entertaining.—The present publication 'preserves this old translation wherever it represents the original and wherever it is not worse; but every picture and every trait of costume, however minute, is restored, and considerably more than half the book is re-translated.' (Preface, p. 44.) The language, as we might expect, is an odd mixture of antient and modern expressions, frequently ungrammatical, and to our apprehension uniformly dull and careless. The following passage is surely not '*corrected* by Robert Southey:'

'While the princess Flerida remained in the forest, expecting that which came not as well to abandon divers choleric humours that overcharged her impatient mind, as also to exile the eager passions which were still approaching her weak nature, she busied herself in gathering flowers, for it was the month of May, accompanied with the fair Artada, and divers ladies and gentlemen; for that this time of recreation was more correspondent to her good liking, than heretofore she could conceive the opinion to like any. Thus she waited for the return of her lord Don Duardos, whose long absence she admitted to some misfortune, or else ungentleness in himself disdained her presence. In which of these to resolve herself she was doubtful, for that in the one she might convict herself of rash belief, though in the other, she might stand upon good occasion. Between these cogitations she spent this whole day, yielding her complaints likewise to the uncomfortable night approaching: which indeed seemed to her more obscure, more grievous, and more desperable, than any night passed to her remembrance So that upon this hard motion, she fell into a resolute opinion, never to hear good tidings of her lord Don Duardos.'

On the whole, we dismiss Palmerin with every courteous wish for his happiness, and for his success in any future adventures with which he may meet: but we must decline to give him any letters of recommendation to our friends and readers, and cannot help wishing that we may never have another *rencontre* with him. As for Mr. Southey, we estimate so respectably his character and talents, that we really regret that he should devote himself to the *correction* of nonsensical Romances, while we can by no means praise him for the manner in which he has executed that office on the present occasion.

ART.

ART. VII. *Mémoires*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the Count Joseph De Puisaye, Lieutenant-General. &c. &c. being Materials for the History of the Royalist French Party during the late Revolution. Vol. VI. in two Parts. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Budd.

WE again resume the irksome task of attending to the confused and (seemingly) endless relations of M. de Puisaye: but it is not within our province or our power to reduce a chaos of this sort into order, nor to form a narrative from a *mêlange* in which so little regard is paid to plan and method. Like the former volumes, the present discloses facts of great importance, and imparts communications which are of high interest: but they are mixed up with a very undue proportion of matter which bears a very opposite character. A few of the more curious statements, and which wear most of the semblance of authenticity, we shall submit to our readers.

If the counter-revolutionary plans of M. de P. have failed, he acquits the British ministry of having in any degree occasioned the course which was taken by events; and he speaks in the highest terms of their ready, chearful, and zealous co-operation.

'Every thing, (says he,) that I deemed necessary or useful for the success of my projects, I had only to demand in order to obtain. Far from experiencing in the offices those difficulties of detail and form by which opportunities are lost, and the best concerted and most matured schemes are defeated, I have found in them all as much alacrity as if in truth it had been the King of England whom we sought to restore to his throne, and not the King of France. Mr. Crewe in the ordnance, Mr. Nepean in the navy, and Mr. Huskisson in the finance departments, are names which I cannot recall without gratitude, and which are intitled to the acknowlegements of the royalists. Even now, at the distance of ten years, the latter gentleman still feels that interest for them, which he displayed when they were making their greatest exertions; and when the ministry was changed previously to the peace of Amiens, Mr. Huskisson, who had been privy to the engagements of the preceding government in their favour, did them justice not in that doubtful and reluctant manner which annuls the obligation, but with that promptitude and good will which so much enhance the price of the service.'

These, then, were the important personages who were so active and alert in committing their country to those inauspicious measures, which have so deeply affected her fortunes, and which have accumulated on her burthens that are without parallel.

If, however, the cabinet of St. James's assisted M. de P. by their zeal, even according to his own account, he does not

not seem to have been much indebted to their judgment. This fact is shewn by their imposing on him the Comte d'Hervilly as his second in command; an appointment which, according to the statements before us, occasioned the dismal catastrophe which terminated all the mighty preparations that had been made, and the vast expence that had been incurred.

During the troubles which were occasioned by the obstinacy of the Archbishop of Sens and M. de Lamoignon, d'Hervilly was sent by the Government to Brittany at the head of a regiment of which he was the second colonel, to compel by force the submission of the country to the orders of these senseless innovators. As the object was nothing less than to annihilate all the remains of the Breton constitution, the resistance was unanimous;—it was not a revolt: but a whole people claimed the observance of those conditions on which they had consented to be united to France; and who did not consider themselves as bound by their promises, any longer than the conditions accepted by the sovereign when they entered into them were observed. The government, too unwise to yield to justice, had recourse to coercion: but 'when the griefs of a people (observes M. de P.) are founded in reason, the application of violence is a certain symptom of debility.'—On this occasion, M. d'Hervilly is said to have acted the soldier, and to have drawn on himself the detestation of all the Bretons, as well Royalists as Republicans. The lapse of a few years had not effaced the impression which this adventure had made. Yet this circumstance, which certainly ought to have formed no recommendation to the ministers of a monarch who owes his throne to the assertion of the right of resistance, and which with wise and calculating men must have weighed as an insurmountable objection to d'Hervilly's appointment, was lightly estimated by Mr. Pitt and his colleagues.

The event, however, according to this author, proved to be extremely unfortunate; and, if we may trust his judgment, this unnatural preference, by ministers of a free country, caused the failure of the restoration of the Bourbons. D'Hervilly is here charged with being under the influence of the courtiers of the Princes, and with having entered into their scheme to render the Quiberon expedition abortive. He is said to have set himself against his superior commander, to have insulted him, to have thwarted him in every thing, uniformly to have disobeyed his orders, and to have defeated all his plans by opposition or delay. It is worthy of notice, as shewing in what a ridiculous and preposterous manner this little party act who are in the interest of the French Princes,

that this M. d'Hervilly, who is accused of having condescended to be their tool, was regarded by them with suspicion and disdain, because he had accepted military preferment in 1791; and, says M. de Puisaye, it was represented by these courtiers, "that it was only from their hands that absolution for the Constitutional sin could be received, and the bastards of the Revolution could be legitimatized."

One of the instruments employed to excite d'Hervilly to this plan of counteracting his superior commander was M. de Contades, who is thus described by the present writer: 'M. de C. is one of those beings who cannot dissemble their incapacity, but who still have cunning enough to attach themselves to the fortune of others, so as to follow them in their elevation without running the risk of sharing in their fall. A courtier by instinct, greedy of favour, and prodigal of protestations, to which his benign exterior and slender powers lend an air of sincerity, he is always true to the trivial principle so familiar to animals like him, *it is a good thing to have two strings to one's bow.*'

M. de P. very properly inveighs against the unaccountable folly and perverseness of the emigrants, in confounding the Constitutionalists with the Jacobins. The proclamation issued by the author on the occasion of his ill-fated expedition avoided that error, and was drawn up with great good sense and moderation. In March 1795, we are informed, a letter from the Regent was published, which was little calculated to bring back the Constitutionalists to the interests of that Prince. 'This party,' observes M. de P., 'has been the only formidable one in the course of the whole revolution; and on the death of Robespierre, it gradually resumed its ascendancy, which the reign of terror had only suspended.' Though this party might have been conciliated, though it could never have been conquered: but the councils of the Princes paid no regard to this consideration; and on the death of the Dauphin they issued a proclamation, the tendency of which was to counteract all the good effects of that of M. de Puisaye. In offering a general pardon, it enumerated the offenders, and made no distinction in favour of the Constituent Assembly: but 'it described its members as unfaithful trustees, who had betrayed the confidence placed in them, violated their oaths, paved the way to revolt, and caused all the evils that had occurred. It required that the re-establishment of the royal authority should precede the reform of abuses.'—'This was language,' continues the author, 'which would have been suitable only after numerous victories, and was not such as ought to have been held to men who were in a situation to make their terms.

The royal counsellors, who had Monk and Charles constantly in their mouths, ought not to have forgotten that, if the declaration of Breda had been as vague as that of Verona, Charles would never have found his way to the throne.' This paper, circulated industriously in la Vendée by the agents of the court of Verona, clearly proves that, while the British ministers were exerting their utmost endeavours to restore the King of France, the depositaries of that prince's confidence were taking every step in their power to defeat the object of England. Innumerable facts, which occur in this volume, shew that the weakness of the princes, and the folly of their partisans, have more advanced the fortunes of Bonaparte than his own unparallelled abilities.

Count de Puisaye admits that his situation, on landing at Quiberon, was highly favourable, while that of the republican forces opposed to him was the reverse.

'Hoche,' he states, 'had few troops, and discontent was general among his officers and soldiers, a natural result of their being in want of every thing, while we had abundance, and received intelligence of their proceedings from various quarters. It is indubitable that, if all the royalist divisions as well in Brittanny as in Maine and Normandy had risen together at this time, as they were disposed to do, and as I had given them orders to do, and if we had marched rapidly forwards, we should have prevented Hoche from collecting his small army, which lay dispersed over a surface of fifty leagues of country; and had this been done it is beyond all doubt that the deliverance of Brittany would have been effected; that the rescue of the whole kingdom would have followed; and that an immense majority of the French, who were as yet strangers to the impolitic declaration which the agents of the King had substituted for that which I had issued, would have shewn themselves, and declared in favour of their lawful sovereign. I now speak only of the party of the royalists which I had organized: but how much more certain would have been the result which I have mentioned, had the three armies which occupied la Vendée united in one grand movement! Why was it only the Morbihan, which scarcely forms one fifteenth part of the insurgent countries, that rose in arms on our arrival? Why did not Poitou and Anjou, the remaining five fifths of Brittany and the Maine, follow the example? Of whom shall the widows and orphans demand their fathers and husbands, and the King of France his crown; and to whom are we to charge the blood which then flowed? The chiefs of la Vendée were apprized in time, and charged to be in readiness to co-operate with us on our arrival. They were disposed to do so; and how happened it that they did not? The agents of the royal favourites and confidants found means to communicate with the insurgents, and had impressed them to that degree with the idea of English perfidy, and the treachery of Pitt, that they paid no attention to promises from that quarter, but believed that I had been the dupe of the finesse of the British

ministry; and the general body of the insurgents, instead of co-operating with the invading forces, sent to Paris to confirm the pacification into which they had lately entered with the Directory.'

We abstain from observations on this remarkable passage, that we may have the more room for subsequent extracts.

M. de Puisaye gives this sketch of the landing of the expedition:

'In order to secure our landing not a match was lighted, and we disembarked as if on a friendly shore. The scene which followed exceeds description. Tears flowed from many an eye which had long ceased to shed them; the enthusiasm between the troops and the inhabitants was carried to the greatest height; and had Hoche's army been near, *the Republic would not have survived that day*. The good people of Morbihan ran to us from all parts, bringing in their beasts and carriages loaded with provisions, and hailing us as their deliverers. The money which was tendered to them in exchange they rejected with scorn. Old men, women, and children, were seen up to their knees in sand dragging the cannon. The men swam to boats, in order to convey on shore the arms, ammunition, and clothing; they contended who should bear the heaviest burthens; the soldiers were infected with the patriotic phrenzy of the people; and the whole coast resounded with *Long Live our Religion, Long Live our King!*'

It is certainly very difficult to believe what is constantly reiterated in these pages, that the insurgents refused to unite with M. de Puisaye in consequence of express orders from the King of France to remain quiet; and he says that, at that particular time, nothing but the concurrence of the authors of the subversion of the throne, with its victims, could have saved the tottering Republic. Pursuing this subject, he observes, 'of all the phænomena which have astonished this age, the most remarkable is that there should be found a set of men, sottish enough to pretend to direct an armed force, in the labours and dangers of which they did not share, and criminal enough to wish to see an end put to their hopes, rather than endure the chagrin of not being able to appropriate to themselves exclusively the advantages of success.'

'Presumptuous in proportion to their folly, they have fastened on the French Princes like those insects which fix themselves in the flesh, feeding on the prey of which they weaken the force and devour the substance. Enemies of the glory and destroyers of the interests of their masters, in all that can give any umbrage to their ambition and cupidity, the evil which they most dreaded was lest men, who were distinguished by great services, should obtain that share in the confidence of their masters which they themselves had usurped: all their efforts were directed to ward off this calamity: but what arms are they capable of wielding, except those of defamation and low intrigue?'

With these followers of the Princes, the author contrasts the honest enthusiastic insurgents:

'*They* did not *write:* but they exposed their lives and all that was most dear to them at every moment of the day. Isolated from the rest of mankind, and confined to their blood-stained soil, which was become the last asylum of religion, of honour, and of fidelity, they relied on their actions to transmit their fame. Little did they suspect that their conduct was the subject of detraction among any except the enemies of the King; and had they been apprized of the fact as it stood, they were too much employed to refute calumnies which were as contemptible as their authors. They were placed between two parties: the one inveterate against them because they were the sole obstacle to the career of the Revolution; the other interested in their ruin, because they might stand in the way of ambition without courage and without talents. Not a line has been published with regard to them which has not been dictated by hatred and envy.'

M. de Puisaye congratulates himself on being the only author who has done justice to these people: but we wish that he had appeared more disinterested in the execution of his undertaking, and that he had not encumbered his narrative with an endless detail of trivial matters with respect to his own affairs.

In conformity to an idea strongly impressed by the whole turn of this voluminous work, the author says:

'It was not by the efforts of the open enemies of the King of France, that an end was put to my exertions, which had been continued for six years of a painful and hazardous struggle, but by the intrigues and baseness of his false friends. My object was the restoration of the monarchy, but of the monarchy purged of the abuses which had been the primary and principal cause of the crisis which we were undergoing. The mode of doing this was to repress the factions by uniting to the King the immense majority of the nation. Had I not been the enemy of those abuses from reason, from honour, and from principle, I ought to have been such from policy.'

These reflections on abuses are very creditable to M. de Puisaye, and we wish that other great functionaries saw them in the same light.

We have not room to enter into a critical examination of the tragical and bloody conclusion of this expedition to Quiberon: nor have we the means of ascertaining the merits of the different accounts. M. de Puisaye makes appeals and refers to authorities which are respectable: but where the truth lies we cannot determine, till his relation shall have undergone examination by some competent and impartial person, who was an eye-witness of the dismal scene.

To the account here given of the zeal and courage of our brave sailors, in rescuing the forlorn royalists from the hands of their relentless enemies, we can allot full credit. 'These British officers,' says M. de Puisaye, 'whom the most execrable ingratitude has charged with rejoicing in the loss of those of the French navy, landed under the very fire of the enemy, with an intrepidity which the desire of rescuing their fellow-men from death could alone inspire. The captains themselves conducted their boats, and, amid showers of musket-balls and grape-shot, disputed with each other who should save the most victims. Captain Keates particularly distinguished himself on this occasion. He went and returned to the shore five or six times; and each time he brought as many of the unhappy beings as his boat would contain. Five or six hundred victims were thus snatched from the fangs of their destroyers.'

The impression which these volumes leave on the mind with respect to the weakness and incapacity of the Bourbon Princes, and the abominable intrigues and cabals with which they are beset, render every hope as to their restoration wild and preposterous. Besides this result, those who have the requisite patience to read through the work will pick up much loose and desultory information with respect to revolutionary France; and indeed no one, who would inform himself of the height to which the war of the Vendée once attained, should omit to give it a perusal.

ART. VIII. *Réfutation d'un Libelle, &c.; i. e.* Refutation of a Defamatory Libel promulgated by M. Beziade d'Avaray, under the Title of "a Report to His Most Christian Majesty, published with his Permission, followed by an Answer to the Count Joseph de Puisaye." 8vo. pp. 88. Budd. 1809.

THIS is a reply from M. de Puisaye to a pamphlet that professes to answer the volume of which we have just given an account. As we have not seen M. d'Avaray's performance, we can give no opinion on the matters in dispute between the parties: but M. de Puisaye states that 'his opponent having for the last 20 years precluded the access of truth to his royal master, whom he has deceived and outraged, he (M. de P.) has no other means of chastising his insolence, than that of exposing his conduct to public view.'—'The endeavour of M. Bertrand de Molleville to reconcile these furious combatants heightens the good opinion which every thing that we have seen of that respectable person has impressed on our minds; and the testimony

testimony which he bears in favour of M. de Puisaye will incline many to think well of that gentleman, who, like ourselves, are incapable of deciding on controversies that are connected with so many vile intrigues.

The Count de Puisaye accuses M. d'Avaray of having prevented a counter-revolution in France by circulating high royalist maxims, such as "*si veut le roi, si veut la loi. Le roi pardonnera, mais les Parlemens feront justice* *;" and those miserable beings, he says, look elsewhere than to their own bad faith, and the abuse which they have made of the King's name and confidence, for the causes which have barred against him the avenue to the throne, and which have perpetuated the sufferings and privations of his followers. He gives passages from the letters of agents in the service of the French Princes, declaratory of the opinions which they entertained of the British ministry and the English nation, at the time when the latter were actually engaged in supporting their cause. These agents are said to have acted from the instructions and under the directions of M. d'Avaray.

"Pitt only seeks to complete the ruin of France, and not to restore the Bourbon family."

"Pitt only makes a mockery of the Princes. A civil war will prolong the Revolution, and the vengeance of Pitt."

"Such are the atrocities of the English, that it is necessary to be on our guard against them."

The same agents say that they rejoiced that "they had inspired the Chouans and Vendeans with a distrust of the English."

Charette wrote to the royal council that "Puisaye and the English should have nothing to do in Brittany."

M. de Puisaye transmitted by respectable hands very important memorials to Louis XVIII. at Blankenburgh: but the bearers of his communications wrote to him that, having ascertained the dispositions and biasses of the council, they did not hesitate to suppress many things in his notes and his last memorial of demands; because, say they, "we are satisfied that, if we had not, we should have been sent back without having been heard."

Can this monarch not see with his own eyes into the few matters that press on his attention; or at least has not the sad state of his affairs convinced him of the necessity of employing the most able and faithful among his adherents? Can we wonder at the hopeless situation to which he has been reduced?

* "What the King wills the law wills; the King will pardon, but the Parliaments will punish."

The imbecility of the Bourbons, we must repeat, seems to have been a more serious obstacle to any change in their favour, than the power and good-fortune of their opponents. To us it appears to indicate extreme want of wisdom in the councils of the unhappy Prince, that he allowed the work to be made public to which the tract before us is an answer. These pages, and the volumes of M. de Puisaye, shew that, strange as it may sound, the Court of Louis XVIII. has been scarcely less the scene of intrigues and cabals, than those of powerful existing governments.

ART. IX. *Caledonia*: or, an Account, Historical and Topographic, of North Britain; from the most ancient to the present Times: with a Dictionary of Places, Chorographical and Philological. In Four Volumes. By George Chalmers, F.R.S. and S.A. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 907. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE public are here presented with a monument of the indefatigable industry of Mr. Chalmers; few writers have appeared in the vast field of general and national antiquities with bolder pretensions; and if numerous quotations, endless references, and intrepid decisions, are indications of eminence, we should be warranted to infer that not many have preceded him in this line to whom he is inferior. Whatever his readers may think, he seems to be fully persuaded that his present efforts and researches have been attended with extraordinary success; and he is himself confident that 'he has ascertained who were the aborigines of Caledonia, by evidence which comes near to demonstration:' as well as 'that, without appealing to doubtful authorities, he has traced the Roman transactions in North Britain, and has illustrated the obscure histories of the Picts and Scots from such satisfactory documents as convey moral certainties.' Should it be alleged that all this has been already done, and that he has only adopted and fortified conclusions which had been previously drawn, it would perhaps be difficult for him to obviate the remark, because the proof of it may be deduced from his own admissions; yet if in this respect we cannot allow him any great share of originality, we do not deny that the points for which he contends are plausibly urged, well reasoned, and backed by a host of authorities.

While justice, however, will be generally rendered to the laborious writer with respect to this part of his work, many readers will complain that so great a portion of this massy volume is devoted to facts and investigations which are altogether

together imaginary, or at best extremely doubtful and wholly unsatisfactory. He will probably meet this charge by asking, if we are to reject every thing that has a tincture of fable from modern compilations, are we to overlook altogether what national vanity craves, and what national dignity would seem to sanction: may it not be that, though the facts are disguised, in substance they are well founded; that, with the fictions, real traits of manners are mingled; that the legend shews the spirit of the times; and that the whole may be illustrative of the more authentic parts of history? He will perhaps also observe that the authorities, which we most reverence, sanction the practice of prefixing early traditional accounts to the authentic relations of history. Should it be contended, however, that he ought to have been more concise while treating of these matters, we know not what defence he could satisfactorily advance; since few of his readers, we apprehend, will agree with him in thinking that, in the vast space which even Lord Hailes seemed to consign to obscurity and fable, Mr. Chalmers has enlightened the one or dispelled the other.

A passage in the preface will furnish us with the author's plan, and with his own notion of his atchievements:

'I was ambitious, I will avow, to offer my countrymen the *ancient history* of Scotland, elaborated into detail, and illustrated into light; without regarding previous opinions, or fearing contentious opposition; without dreading difficulties, or apprehending disappointment. I have divided my work, without regarding fantastical conceits of fabulous epochs, into such periods, as were analogous to the genuine history of each successive people. The *Roman period*, extending from Agricola's arrival, in North-Britain, A. D. 80, to the abdication of the Roman authority, in A. D. 446, forms the first book, from its priority in time, as well as precedence in importance. In discussing this interesting subject, I was not content with previous authorities. I engaged intelligent persons to survey Roman roads, to inspect Roman stations, and to ascertain doubtful points of Roman transactions. I have thus been enabled to correct the mistakes of former writers, on those curious topicks. Much perhaps cannot be added to what has been now ascertained, with respect to the engaging subject of the first book. Yes: since *Caledonia* was sent to the press, a discovery of some importance has been made: a very slight doubt remained, whether the Burghead of Moray had been a Roman station, as no Roman remains had there been found: but, this doubt has been completely solved, by the recent excavation, within its limits, of a Roman bath. The first chapter of the following work will be found to be as much the first chapters of the annals of England, and of Ireland, as it is of Scotland. The *Pictish period* naturally succeeds the *former Book*, as it extends, from the Abdication of the Romans, in A. D. 426, to the overthrow of the Picts, in A. D. 843. It will be found to comprehend interesting events: the affairs of the Picts; the

the fate of the Romanized Britons; the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons on the Tweed; the adventures of the Scandinavians, in the Orkney, and Western Isles; the colonization of Argyle, by the Scots, from Ireland. It is the business of the *Pictish period*, to trace the singular history of all those people, various as they were in their lineages, throughout the different events of their obscure warfare, and the successive turns of their frequent changes: add to those topicks of peculiar interest the *introduction of Christianity*, which, in every age, and in every country, has produced such memorable effects. The *Scotish period*, forming the *third Book*, and extending from A.D. 843 to 1097, will be found to comprehend historic topicks of equal importance: the union of the Picts, and Scots, into one kingdom; the amalgamation of the ancient Britons of Strathclyde with both; the colonization of Galloway by the Irish; the annexation of Lothian to the Scotish kingdom; the history, both civil, and ecclesiastical, of all those people of various races, with notices of their antiquities, their languages, their learning, their laws; all these form historical matters of singular interest to rational curiosity, if they be investigated from facts, in contempt of fabulosity. The *fourth Book* contains the *Scoto-Saxon period*, which extends from A.D. 1097 to 1306, and which details many notices of varied importance. At the first, and at the second of those epochs, momentous revolutions took place, though they have passed unnoticed by the Scotish historians; and were unknown to the historiographer royal. With this period began a new dynasty of kings, who introduced new people, new manners, new usages, and new establishments. In this period, the Saxon colonization of proper Scotland was begun. In this period, was the Scotican church reformed. In it, was introduced the municipal law of North-Britain, in the place of Celtic customs. In this period, originated her agriculture, her commerce, and shipping, and fishery, her manufactories, and her coins. The beginning of this period formed the pivot, on which turned the Celtic government of ancient ages, and the Anglo-Norman polity of subsequent times. Yet, is it of a period so crowded with changes, and so varied with novelties, that the late historiographer royal says, "the events, which then happened, may be slightly touched, but merit no particular inquiry." But, I have dwelt on those revolutions, and have marked every change. By a vast detail from *the Chartularies*, in respect to the civil history, from 1097 to 1306, to the ecclesiastical annals, to law, to manners, and to domestic economy, I have tried to ascertain every interesting circumstance, and to render the national annals of that interesting period quite familiar to every reader: and, to give completeness to the whole, are added supplemental views of subsequent times, which have their details to instruct, and their curiosity to amuse. Such is the plan, which I have formed, and essayed to execute, for reforming, and ascertaining the ancient history of North-Britain, which has been so long distorted by controversy, obscured by fable, and disregarded by fastidiousness.'

Apprehensive that the unwieldy size of this production might deter persons from sitting down to the perusal of it,

Mr,

Mr. Chalmers seems to have introduced the following paragraph in order to rouse and stimulate their curiosity :

'It is the common complaint of intelligent readers, that there is nothing *new* in history ; as the same facts are again served up, in different forms, with some interspersions of sentiment It is very seldom, indeed, that any history contains so many new facts, new discoveries, and new documents, as the following account of North-Britain discloses. What can be more novel, than ascertaining *the aborigines* of the country, by proofs, which are as curious in themselves, as they are decisive in their inferences. Roman camps, in North-Britain, had been already brought before the curious eye: but, it is quite new, to show their location amidst the prior forts of the Britons, for some hostile purpose. Roman roads, and Roman stations, had been before mentioned by tourists, and traced by antiquaries: but, it is altogether new, to investigate their policy ; and to form the whole of the Roman transactions, in Caledonia, into a connected body of genuine history, during four interesting centuries. The Picts had been sometimes casually mentioned : but, it is quite a novelty, to give the history of the Pictish people, their lineage, their language, their antiquities : it was known from Bede, that the Picts had defeated, and slain the Northumbrian Egfrid, in the battle of Nectan's Mere : but, it is altogether new, to ascertain the true site of that consequential conflict. The genuine chronology of the Scotish kings, their civil wars, their hostilities with the Picts ; the Scotish laws, and literature, are all novelties. The colonization of Scotland, by the Anglo-Saxons, Anglo-Normans, and Flemings, comprehending the origin of the Stewarts, and the descent of the Douglases, is quite new. The history of law, during the twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, including the origin, and epoch of the *Regiam Majestatem ;* the history of manners in this period ; the account of agriculture, of manufactures, of trade, and of the various topicks, which are connected with them ; are entirely new. The whole volume may be regarded as a novelty, considering its arrangment, its matter, and its documents. Few histories can be found, wherein there are so many charters called for, so many records avouched, so many facts ascertained, and so many documents quoted.'

Having thrown out these allurements, he ventures to inform us that the present volume is only a part of the entertainment which he is preparing, and that it is to be followed by three others (perhaps of the same unwieldy dimensions) ; the proposed contents of these he also gives, and we should deem it wrong to withhold them from our readers :

'Yet, this volume, which comprehends the history of so many people, during ages of darkness, does not comprehend my whole plan, for rectifying the annals, and ascertaining the antiquities of CALEDONIA. I propose to offer to the public three other volumes, successively, and soon, if my health, and spirits should continue. As the present volume has given the history of the several people, the next volume will form a DICTIONARY OF PLACES, *Chorographical*

phical and *Philological*; for the investigation of the various languages, which have been ever spoken within that country. This volume will be immediately sent to the press. The two subsequent volumes will contain the local history of every shire, in Scotland, upon a new plan, and from the most authentic informations. The materials for all these are already collected; and they are mostly all worked up: so that there is little to prevent me from sending the whole to the printers, except that, I should certainly feel this circumstance too fatiguing, and the public might perhaps regard it, as too repulsive.'

Mr. C. gives his sanction to the opinion that the Celts originally peopled the whole extent of Europe: but he observes that they were no were found in large assemblages.

'While Asia, and Africa, shew several examples of empires, vast, and flourishing, in the earliest times, we only see, among the *Celts*, clans, disconnected from habit, and feeble from disunion. At the recent period, when the Romans entered Gaul, with whatever design of revenge, or conquest, that extensive country, the appropriate seat of the Celtic people, was cantoned among sixty tribes, who were little united by polity, and still less conjoined by the accustomed habits of natural affection. Wherever we turn our inquisitive eyes on the wide surface of Europe, we look, in vain, for a Celtic empire, however the Celtic people may have agreed, in their language, in their worship, and in their customs. Yet, at the dawn of history, we see the European nations, who dwelt to the westward of those waters, which flow eastward to the Euxine, denominated *the Celtæ*.

'Disunited, however, as the Celtic clans were, and dispersed, in their several positions, they often made themselves felt. During the reign of the elder Tarquin, if we may believe Livy, more than five centuries and a half before our era, the Gauls, under Belovesus, seized the country on the Po; while another swarm, under Segovesus, settled in Germany. Four hundred years before our common era, the Gauls invaded Italy, in such a numerous body, as to evince the extent, and populousness of the country, whence they proceeded. Brennus, their leader, sacked Rome. They were repulsed by the genius of Camillus; but they were not dismayed by their disaster. They again over-ran Italy by a second invasion. And it required all the valour, and all the skill, of the Roman armies, to repress the daring of the Celtic people. The Gauls overspread Thrace, and plundered the temples of Greece, whatever genius, and force could be opposed to their inroads. They invaded Asia, which had already acknowledged the superior character of European firmness, and discipline; and which gave their irresistible invaders a settlement, that was long known, by the vivid remembrance of their perseverance, and their prowess.

'Those intimations of history seem to demonstrate, that western Europe, throughout its wide extent, was already filled with Celtic inhabitants. It was the superabundance of its populousness, which discharged itself, during successive ages, in quest of plunder, or in pursuit of settlement. It is thus apparent, from every notice of history, and every specification of geography, that *the Celtæ* were the aboriginal

aboriginal people of Europe, throughout its ample limits. Yet, has it been debated by ingenuity, and inquired by learning, whether the Celtæ, or the Scythes, were the most ancient people; as if there could be priority of origin, while they were both descended from a common, though distant origin. It is of much more importance to inquire when, and on what occasion, the Celtæ, who were thus, for ages, the sole inhabitants, as they were the original colonists of Europe, became mingled with a dissimilar people, either by colonization, or conquest.'

We agree with the author in thinking that a history of the several Celtic nations is a desideratum. Pelloutier is a writer of great research, but he proceeds on an erroneous system.—Mr. C. thus concisely states his opinion in respect to their successors the Goths:

'That Gothic colonists came into Western Europe, from whatever country, at some period, we know, from the prevalence of their speech, which has almost superseded the aboriginal tongue. But, whence came they? is a question, that has been often asked; yet has not hitherto been answered. With a view to that question, we must throw our inquisitive eyes over the instructive course of the Danube, from its spring among the Celtæ, to its issue into the Euxine, among the Getæ. There, we may see, on the banks of the Danube, Dacia, the country of the Daces, Getia, the region of the Getes, and Moesia, which, in after ages, gave subsistence, and a name to the Moeso-Goths. On the northern side of the Danube, flowed the sister stream of the Tyras, which gave rise to the name of the Tyro Goths, who lived either upon its banks, or within its isles; and who, in subsequent times, were denominated by Ptolemy the Tyran-Goths. In his time, the appellation of Goths, by the philological changes of seven centuries, had displaced the more ancient name of Getes: and there can, therefore, be no reasonable doubt, whether the Goths were any other than the same people, who, in more early times, had been known, by the kindred designation of Getes, and Daces. Thus, the Goths, the Tyro-Goths, and the Moeso-Goths; the Dacians, and the Getes, were the same people, who, like other barbarous tribes, in successive ages, and in varying situations, were differently denominated by writers, who viewed them in different lights.

'The Gothic tribes, however denominated, formed one of the aboriginal people of Europe. On this event, history is silent; but, philology is instructive. The Gothic language is certainly derived from a common origin with the most ancient languages of the European world; the Greek, the Latin, and the Celtic. Ancient Thrace, comprehending Getia, Dacia, and Moesia, was the original country of the Goths. Every inquiry tends to demonstrate, that the tribes, who originally came into Europe, by the Hellespont, were remarkably different, in their persons, their manners, and their language, from those people, who, in after ages, migrated from Asia, by the more devious course, around the northern extremities of the Euxine, and its kindred lake. This striking variety must for ever evince the difference

difference between the Gothic, and the Scythic hords, however they may have been confounded, by the inaccuracy of some writers, or by the design of others.'

It is contended by this writer that the whole population of our island, at the time of the Roman invasion, consisted only of Celts; and the aborigines of the north of the island he supposes to have proceeded from those who first peopled the south. He states that

'At the epoch of Agricola's invasion, North-Britain may be viewed as a mirror, that reflects back the condition, in which was South-Britain, at the more distant era, when Julius Cæsar first invaded the shores of our island. This faithful mirror shows also the state of Gaul, when the Roman ambition enterprized the conquest of the common parent of the British nations. Those kindred countries were each cantonized into many tribes, who were only connected together, by the slight ties of a common origin, similar customs, and the same speech. Caledonia, in its largest extent, from the Tweed and the Eden, on the south, to Caithness point on the north, was possessed by one-and-twenty tribes of Aboriginal Britons, who were populous; in proportion to the greater, or less fertility of the districts, which they severally occupied: the tribes, on the west coast, must have been fewer in numbers, than the more potent clans, on the eastern shore. Every tribe enjoyed the ancient privilege of being each independent of the whole; and who only united under a Pendragon, when danger pressed, and necessity demanded the authority of a single person, for the safety of the whole people, according to the Celtic principle of disunited independence.'

The position, that the earliest inhabitants of North Britain were Celts, is here inferred from the names of the natural features of the country, its mountains, promontories, harbours, rivers, and waters; from the resemblance in its rights of worship and sepulture to those of other Celtic nations; and from its cromlechs, carnedds, and other similar monuments which are found in it, and which are discovered in every country that the Celts inhabited.

'It were easy, (says Mr. Chalmers,) to show, that the remains of Druidism are more numerous in North, than in South Britain. They do not equal, though they certainly emulate, the stupendous works of the same kind, on Salisbury-Plain, and at Abury. They were all undoubtedly the works of a people, who were actuated by great activity of religious principle, and possessed amazing ingenuity of invention, and power of execution. Those monuments also evince, that the Druids enjoyed, and exerted, all the knowledge, and influence, which have been attributed to them by history, in ancient, and in modern, times. From the foregoing investigations, we may perceive, that the stone monuments in North, and South Britain, as they are exactly the same, must necessarily have been erected, by the same people, and nearly in the same age. It is in vain, then, for sceptics

sceptics to talk vaguely of there never having been Druids, in North-Britain, where so many stone monuments attest their existence, and exhibit their labours.'

In a very elaborate manner, Mr. C. applies the results of modern antiquarian and geographical researches in Scotland to elucidate Tacitus's account of the campaigns of Agricola in that country; and he prosecutes with great minuteness of detail the subsequent transactions of the Romans, during the whole period of their having continued to hold the government of Caledonia.

The extract which we shall now transcribe introduces that people, of whom such frequent mention is made at the period of the departure of the Romans from this island, and for some centuries after the Picts. Mr. Chalmers follows those authorities which represent them as being the unsubdued inhabitants of Caledonia, who resided to the North of the Roman settlement:

'Meantime, the five tribes of provincial Britons, who lived within the northern wall, were too inconsiderable to be much interested, in the revolutions of the Roman world: but, they were not perhaps too poor to be the objects of envy to less opulent clans, who sometimes plundered what they wanted industry to acquire, and civilization to enjoy. To this cause it was probably owing, that Constance found it necessary to come into Britain, during the year 306, to repel the Caledonians, *and other Picts*. This is the first time that the *Picts* appear in history. The Caledonian people had often been mentioned before, by classic authors, under other names. The *Caledonians* were, on this occasion, called *Picts*, owing to their peculiar seclusion from the Roman provincials, on the south of the walls: and they were often mentioned, during the decline of the Roman empire, by orators, historians, and poets, by that significant appellation. The name of *Picts* has continued, to the present day, the theme of antiquarian disputes, and the designation of national history. That the *Picts* were Caledonians, we thus have seen, in the mention of classic authors, during three centuries: that the Caledonians were the North-Britons, who fought Agricola, at the foot of the Grampian, we know from the nature of the events, and the attestation of Tacitus: that the Northern Britons of the first century were the descendants of the Celtic Aborigines, who were the same people, as the southern Britons, during the earliest times, has been satisfactorily proved, as a moral certainty.'

The next passage brings us acquainted with their conquerors, who were destined to give name to the country which they invaded.

'The year 360 is the epoch of the first appearance of the Scotish people, in the pages of the Roman annals. Ammianus, who mentions them, at present, joins the Scots with the Picts, as if they had formed

formed one army, though they had no connection whatever, by lineage, or in neighbourhood, or in interests. The historian himself, indeed, speaks of the Scots, in the year 367, as an erratic people, who spread much waste by their predatory excursions. These descriptions do not apply, with any truth, to a tribe, who resided in Britain: and, indeed, the contemporary authors of that age speak of the Scots, as a transmarine people, who invaded the Roman provincials, from the sea; and who came from Ireland, which was their native isle. The *Scots* were unknown, as a people, during the first, and second centuries, if we may regard, as satisfactory evidence, the uniform silence of the classic authors of Rome, and Greece, during those learned ages. The *Scoticæ gentes*, the Scotish people, were first mentioned by Porphyry, who flourished, at the end of the third century; yet, were not the *Scots* mentioned by Eumenius, the orator, though he was the first to notice the *Picts* of North-Britain, and to distinguish the *Hiberni* of Ireland.'

The history of Caledonia, from its partial subjugation by Agricola to the appearance of the Picts, having occupied the first of the four books into which this volume is divided, the author then states the subjects of which the second book treats:

'The *Pictish Period*, extending from the abdication of the Romans in A. D. 446, to the overthrow of the Pictish government, in 843 A. D., will be found, from its notices, to comprehend interesting events. At the epoch of Agricola's invasions, the ample extent of North-Britain was inhabited, as we have seen, by one-and-twenty Gaelic clans, who were connected by such slight ties, as scarcely to enjoy a social state. At the period of the Roman abdication, there remained, in North-Britain, only one race of men, the genuine descendants of those Caledonian clans: the sixteen tribes, who ranged unsubdued, beyond the wall of Antonine, under the appropriate denomination of *the Picts*; the five southern tribes of kindred people, who, as they remained under the Roman jurisdiction, seem to have been considerably civilized, by the adoption of Roman arts; but, the *Angles* had not yet arrived within the Ottadinian territories, on the Tweed; and, the Scots still continued, in Ireland, their original country. The sixteen tribes of proper Picts acquired, from their independence, higher importance, when they were no longer overawed by the Roman power; and they will be immediately found to have been the dominating nation, throughout four centuries of the North-British annals. The five Romanized tribes of *Valentia*, who had long enjoyed the instructive privilege of Roman citizenship, will soon appear to have assumed the character of an independent people, who established for themselves their own government. Two new races of men ere long arrived, within the Caledonian regions, who not only saddened the enjoyments, but at length eclipsed the glories of the Caledonian Britons. The *Angles* early settled on the Tweed; and erewhile obliged the Ottadini to relinquish for ever, as we shall see, their beloved domains. At the end of half a century, the

the *Scots* of Ireland colonized Argyle; and spreading themselves over the circumjacent districts, superseded the Pictish government, as we shall perceive, after the bloody struggles of three hundred and forty years. It must be the business of this *Pictish Period* of the North-British annals, to trace the singular history of all those people; the *Caledonian Picts*, the *Romanized Britons*, the *Angles* of Lothian, the *Scots* of Argyle; throughout the various events of their obscure warfare, and the successive turns of their revolutionary changes.'

Mr. C. then proceeds to observe that

'The lineage of the Pictish people has been disputed, though without any valid reason, as if there could be a doubt, whether they were of a Celtic, or of a Gothic origin. But, their genealogy may be clearly traced, through three consecutive changes; from the Gauls to the Britons; from the Britons to the Caledonians; and from the Caledonians to the Picts; thus changing their names, but not their nature. During many an age, before our common era, Gaul was the splendid scene, wherein the Celts displayed, before the intelligent eyes of the Roman people, the peculiarities of their religion, the originality of their customs, and the singularity of their manners. The Gaelic Celts, who emigrated to Britain, brought with them, into this island, all those distinguishing features, with their original language. One of the most striking points of comparison, between Gaul, and Britain, was the geographical divisions of the country, and the civil institutions of the people. Gaul appears to have been, in every age, cantoned among many clans, who were each independent of the whole. South-Britain was, in the same manner, divided among many tribes. North-Britain, at the memorable invasion of Agricola, was cantonized among one-and-twenty clans, who seldom united, in any common measure, as they were involved in eternal warfare. In Gaul, in South, and in North-Britain, we may perceive a strong principle of division, the peculiar characteristic of the Celts; producing the direful effects of perpetual enmity, during domestic peace, and constant weakness, amidst foreign war. This common principle of the Celtic people, which prevented the association of large communities, and obstructed the establishment of a vigorous government, has continued to vex, and enfeeble, their descendants, in Gaul, and in Britain, even down to our own times.

'There was another principle, which was peculiar to those Celtic people, and which has involved their affairs, both within Gaul, and throughout Britain, in lasting darkness. They made it a constant rule never to commit any thing to writing, according to a settled maxim, that it was more glorious to perform great actions, than to write, in good language. The *observance* of that rule, whether it proceeded from military ardour, or from superstitious *observances*, has covered the antiquities of their British descendants with undiminished mists.

'We have, however, seen *distinctly*, during the first, and second, centuries, North-Britain inhabited by one-and-twenty *distinct* tribes. The most powerful of those clans, the *Caledonians*, seem early to have given a general denomination to the whole. In the succinct biography

of Tacitus, those tribes, who opposed Agricola, are either denominated *Britanni*, or Horestii, or Caledonii, whose country was, analogically, denominated by him *Caledonia*. The origin of all those Roman names are [*is*] to be found, as we have seen, in the language of the British people themselves. And, the celebrated appellation, Caledonia, was merely Romanized, from the *Celyddon* of the Britons, that owed its origin to the woods, which spread, in ancient times, over the interior, and western parts of the country, lying beyond the Forth and Clyde; and which were mentioned emphatically, before the age of Tacitus, by Pliny, as the *Caledonian forest*.'

The author shews that the names of the Pictish kings and that of their capital are significant in the British language, and thence infers an argument in favour of their British origin. A long list of topographical names is also adduced for the same purpose.

We are led to make the succeeding quotation, because it embraces the principal conclusions of Mr. Chalmers in reference to the present subject:

'That Britain was gradually colonized, from the nearest coast of Gaul, is an historical fact, which seems to be agreed upon, by scholars, from J. Cæsar, and Tacitus, Buchanan, and Camden, to Stillingfleet, and Schoepflin. That the several districts of the same island should be peopled, by the same tribes, is a probability, which may be carried up to certainty, by the satisfactory evidence of the perpetual resemblance of the same language, religion, and manners. Yet, paradox supposes it to be more likely, that the northern parts of our island were planted, by migrants, from beyond the ocean, than from beyond the Tweed, during ages, when the art of ship-building was unknown. For maintaining that certainty, proofs, which come near to demonstration, have been submitted to the reader, that every part of this island was settled, originally, by the same Gaelic tribes. Is is a *truism*, then, that our whole island was planted, by the same British people. And, against this *truism*, and that demonstration, Tacitus cannot be allowed to make his conjectures, nor Bede, to inform us, *from the report of others*, that the second people, who settled, in this island, came from Scythia. Subsequent writers, who raised a superstructure of sentiments on the *opinion* of Tacitus, and the *hear-say* of Bede, appear thus to build on a very slight foundation.

'The British tribes cannot be dispossessed, unless by the introduction of a new people, whose arrival, and conquests, must be evidenced by stronger proofs, than paradoxical theories. The British people, in fact, remained undispossessed of their ancient land, during the first, and second centuries. The pristine topography of North-Britain, as it is exhibited, by Ptolemy, and Richard, ascertains that decisive truth. In them, we see a thousand traces of a Celtic people: but, of a Gothic people, it is impossible to perceive a single trace. While topography speaks thus to the conviction of every reader, history is silent, concerning Gothic migrations, in those times, into the British islands, or even into western Europe.

'The *Caledonians* were the inhabitants of North-Britain, during the first century, as we learn from Tacitus. It was the Caledonians, who fought Agricola, at the foot of the Grampian. It was the Caledonians, who finally repulsed the Roman legions. If the inhabitants of North-Britain, during the first century, were British tribes of a Celtic lineage, the Caledonians must necessarily have been Celtic Britons. And, the context of Tacitus attests, that the Britons of North, and South-Britain, were, in that age, the same people.

'The Caledonians were immediately succeeded by the Picts; or rather, the Picts were the old Caledonians, under a new name. The classic authors, who lived during the third century, when the Caledonians first appeared, under the appellation of Picts, are so positive, that they were the same people, that even polemicks have acknowledged this significant truth. The stoutest supporters of the Gothic system, concerning the Pictish lineage, are forced to confess, that the Caledonians, and Picts, were the same people. The acknowledgment, which has just been made, of the *sameness* of the Picts, and Caledonians, is fatal to the *Gothic system*: for, as it has been settled, by a thousand facts, as a moral certainty, that the North-British tribes were a Celtic people, during the second, and first centuries, the Caledonians of those times must, necessarily, have been British Celts: a system, which pretends to outface a thousand facts, involves in it a million of absurdities: the fundamental truth, that the Picts, and Caledonians, the Britons and Gauls, were the same Celtic people, is strongly supported by moral certainties; while the Gothic system is made to stand on unauthorized assertion, and unavailable inference.'

The work of a writer who has misled many persons, by the confidence and hardihood of his assertions, is thus characterized by Mr. Chalmers. Alluding to the controversy between the Macphersons and Whitaker, he states that

'This conflict had scarcely ceased, when there appeared "An Enquiry into the History of Scotland, preceding 1056," (by John Pinkerton, in 1789.) By a meretricious display of authorities, etymologies, and topography, he professes to show the opinions of those erudite writers, Camden, Selden, and Lloyd, to be false, ignorant, and childish. In order to fasten this censure upon such scholars, he dedicates a whole chapter to prove that, "the Northern Britons, Caledonians, and Picts, were one and the same people." A superficial reader would necessarily suppose, from this proof, that our Inquirer coincided, in opinion, with those learned men, who are said to talk falsely, ignorantly, and childishly: for, they maintained, that the Northern Britons were the same people, as the Southern Britons; that the Caledonians were the descendants of the British colonists, from South Britain; that the Picts were merely the offspring of the Caledonians, under a new name, and a different aspect. He has, however, a thousand distinctions, to shield himself, from the charge of contradiction. The Northern Britons were not, in his opinion, Cambro-Britons. The Caledonians, and Picts were, indeed, the same people; but, they were Goths, from Scandia, who expelled

the Cambro-Britons, about two centuries before Christ. But, the research, and learning, of two centuries, have not brought yet any proof of the migration of a Gothic colony into North-Britain, till the fifth age, when the Angles arrived upon the Tweed. Every attempt to prove this improbability has egregiously failed; because falsehood cannot be proved: Stillingfleet had learning, and our Inquirer exerted his diligence; but they failed, in establishing their Gothic migrations; because such migrations never happened. Suffice it to say, adds our Inquirer, "that every writer, who mentions the origin of the Picts, till 1707, when Lhuyd's Archaiologia appeared, derive them from Scandinavia, excepting *Camden alone*; who was himself far from learned. The writers, who are thus opposed, by our Inquirer, to Camden, who is mistakingly supposed to have stood alone, in maintaining the Cambro-British origin of the Picts, are Nennius, the Saxon Chronicler, Geoffry of Monmouth, Giraldus Cambrensis, O'Flaherty, Usher, Stillingfleet, and Sheringham. Our Inquirer was immediately opposed by Riston, who maintained, with equal learning, and labour, the *Celticism* of the Picts; yet, acknowledged that, it would require a volume, to expose the errors, to exhibit the contradictions, and to confute the system of *the Inquiry*, 1789.'

As far as authority may decide the controversy, it is not a matter of small moment that

'The latest investigator of the *Pictish question* is the erudite Edward King, the curious author of the *Munimenta Antiqua*. After investigating the stone monuments, and the hill-forts, the ancient castles, and the barbarous manners of North-Britain, he gives it as his judgment, "that the Picts were descended from the aboriginal Britons." This profound antiquary concurs with the late Doctor Henry, in saying that, "we hear nothing of any invasion of the Caledonians, by any such distinct people, as the Picts," and he, therefore, concludes, as Innes has inferred before him, "that this denomination was merely a *new name*, which was given to the *old settlers*."

How indignant must Mr. Pinkerton be to find his bold theories thus swept away, his descent from his god-like Goths denied, and his origin traced to the contemptible Celts! How is it that he has remained so long silent?

In the author's account of the interesting kingdom of Cambria, he does not fail to pay due tribute to the hero of British annals, the far-famed Arthur; and in a note he gives a list of the numerous places, by which North-British topography bears testimony to the fame of the renowned Pendragon.

We regret that we cannot enter into Mr. Chalmers's elaborate elucidation of another controverted subject, the origin and migration of the Scots, and their subsequent fortunes in North-Britain; and that we are also obliged to pass over his account of the introduction of Christianity into these regions.

regions. His criticisms, however, on the relations which have reached us concerning the Caldees, are more indicative of courtesy to the dominant religion of the south, than of any profound research into North-British ecclesiastical antiquities.

Book III. of this volume treats of the union of the Picts and Scots. This part the author denominates:

'The *Scotish Period* of the *Account of North-Britain*, extending from the accession of Keneth MacAlpin in A.D. 843, to the demise of Donal-bane, in 1097; which, however dark, will be found to contain several events of great importance, in the North British annals. The union of two separate nations into one monarchy, as it augmented the power of both, and by the ascendency of the Scots, gave at length their name to the common country, must be peculiarly interesting to rational curiosity. In this period, we shall perceive the Strathclyde kingdom of the ancient Britons merge in the Scotish nation. We shall see, meantime, the antient territories of the Selgovæ, the Novantes, and Damnii, colonized by successive emigrants from Ireland, who gave their settlements the name of *Galloway*; and who, by a strange fortune, became known, under the appropriate appellation of the ancient Picts. Cumberland will be found to have sunk after the suppression of its reguli, into an appendage of the Scotish crown, by the doubtful ties of an obscure title. After some bloody struggles, throughout this period of more than two centuries and a half, Lothian, we shall see, annexed to Scotland, by the lasting connection of rightful cession, and mutual advantage. We shall behold the circumjacent isles to be at length, felt, as neighbours, and feared, as opponents. It must be the business of this period, then, to trace the history of all those countries, and people, from different sources; to illustrate their singular laws from new principles: to investigate their manners, and customs, from analogous proofs; and to ascertain their antiquities, and language, from a temperament of philology, with interspersions of history.'

In his account of the union of these two rival nations, Mr. Chalmers closely follows Innes; and in our opinion he cannot commit himself to a more sure guide.

The able recapitulation of the evidence in favour of the Celtic extraction of the original inhabitants of North-Britain, which we find in this part of the work, can leave little doubt of the fact in an unbiassed mind. It is too long to be here inserted, and it does not admit of being abridged.

During this period occur the successive reigns of Duncan and Macbeth, around which our immortal bard has thrown an interest that will last as long as matchless displays of genius shall continue to charm and delight. Of the original of that sublime heroine of the drama, whom we have so often seen more than realize all that the poet himself conceived, we have here this account;

'Kenneth IV., while reigning lawfully, was slain in 1003 A. D., as we have perceived, by Malcolm II., at the battle of Monivaird. Kenneth IV. left a son, Boedhe, the heir of his rights, and the successor to his wrongs. Seeing how unable he was to contend with the slayer of his father, he seems to have provided for his safety, by his insignificance; and, he left a son, and a daughter, to enjoy his pretensions, and to avenge his injuries: his son, however, was slain, in 1033, by one of the last orders of the aged Malcolm. His daughter was the Lady Gruoch, who married, for her first husband, Gilcomgain, the maormor of Moray, a person of the first consequence, next to the royal family; and, for her second husband, she married the never-to-be-forgotten Macbeth. The Lady Gruoch, with great strength of character, had the most afflictive injuries constantly rankling at her heart; a grandfather dethroned, and slain; a brother assassinated; and her husband burnt, within his castle, with fifty of his friends; herself a fugitive, with Lulach, her infant son. Such were the injuries, which prompted the Lady Gruoch's vengeful thoughts; and "which filled her, from the crown to the toe, topful of direst cruelty." Amidst her misfortunes, she married Macbeth, the maormor of Ross, who was then in the prime of life; and who was of still greater power, than her first husband: for, after his marriage with this injured woman, he became maormor of Moray, during the infancy of Lulach. If Macbeth was, indeed, as we are assured by Boece, and Buchanan, and Lesley, the son of Donda, a daughter of Malcolm II., he might well enter into competition with Duncan, for the crown. And, we thus perceive, that Macbeth wanted "no spur to prick the sides of his intent." This *intent* was at length carried into effect, by the insidiousness of assassination, rather than the magnanimity of conflict.'

If our limits permitted, we should gladly subjoin the author's enumeration of the instances in which the drama has departed from reality, together with the topographical remarks by which he has illustrated it.

We now enter on the fourth or concluding book, and to us the most satisfactory in the volume. It treats of what the author calls the Scoto-Saxon period, which embraces the space from the year 1097 to 1306. During this epoch, happened one of the most singular as well as the most pleasing revolutions of any that are to be found in history. It was a revolution not produced by the rude and sanguinary hand of force, but an instance of voluntary homage paid by untutored barbarism to superior knowlege and civilization; an instance of a rude people incorporating with itself more enlightened strangers, and adopting in a great measure their language, manners, and laws. The Anglo-Saxon ascendancy in North-Britain has been hitherto involved in much mystery: but the highly commendable industry of Mr. Chalmers has wholly unravelled it, not by plausible and ingenious conjectures, but

by

by facts completely verified. He shews from charters and other authentic sources, that migrations from the southern to the northern part of the isle took place to a surprizing extent, though the ordinary historians have too little adverted to the fact; yet the catalogue of them which is given in these pages is so large, that, in connection with other circumstances which are here related, they fully account for this rare phænomenon. Nearly all the great families of the North are descendants from Anglo-Saxon or Anglo-Norman emigrants from this part of the island, whom the Scotish Court tempted to fix themselves in their territory by large grants of lands to the settlers, their retainers, and dependents. Owing to the low state of culture, land in Scotland was at this time of little value, and the country very thinly inhabited; it must therefore be excellent policy in the government to colonize it with persons who were more advanced in the arts, particularly in agriculture; and such policy, as history states, was well understood and followed by several of the Scotish princes. This part of the work before us cannot be commended too highly; and it verifies the promise as to originality which was made by the author in his preface.

A very full and spirited account is given of the unworthy practices, and unprincipled proceedings, by which Edward I. attempted to render Scotland dependent on the crown of England; and Mr. Chalmers well states the changes which the Anglo-Saxon ascendancy occasioned in the civil and the ecclesiastical constitution of the state. We meet also with a very instructive and luminous chapter on the antient and modern laws of Scotland; and an able summary of Scotish affairs, from the termination of the Scoto-Saxon period to the present time, which strongly indicates the political bias of the writer, closes the volume.

Though in parts this production is very wearisome, still a great proportion of its contents not only enlightens but strongly interests the reader; and he who has the perseverance to struggle through the whole of it will be well rewarded for his labour. We have, indeed, one great fault to impute to it, an almost universal fault in modern publications, the neglect of revisal and finish; Mr. C.'s language being frequently defaced by repetitions, quaintnesses, and inaccuracies; and so overloaded with punctuation, that to observe all his commas and semicolons in reading it would often put a *full stop* to his meaning: but, taking it altogether, if the author meets with sufficient encouragement to complete his design, we do not hesitate to say that, in respect to the antiquities, history, and topography of Scotland, his work promises far to exceed any that has yet appeared.

ART. X. *The Reign of Charlemagne considered*, chiefly with Reference to Religion, Laws, Literature, and Manners. By Henry Card, A M. of Pembroke College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 208. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN our progress through general history, when we have passed the times of the Antonines and Trajans, the scene (with the exception of a few rare spots) becomes dark and dreary till we reach the epochs of Charlemagne and Alfred. The latter is perhaps the most remarkable and luminous, but attracts less notice because it was confined to a more limited space. Historians and compilers, when they arrive at the period of the revival of the new empire of the west, retard their march, depart from the high road, and make excursions into bye-paths; as it were to refresh themselves and to exhilirate their readers, after the toil of journeying along a track which presents to the eye nought but barren and desolate prospects. Hence it happens that we find little on record respecting Charlemagne, which is not to be found in some one of our meritorious compilers.

The author of the present volume is anxious to vindicate our countryman, the illustrious Alcuin, from the charge of being an enemy to pagan literature:

'We cannot,' he tells us, 'readily consent to imitate the credulity of some writers, who without the least examination have admitted the dislike of Alcuin to the ancient poets, as a point fully established, and of undoubted certainty. It will assuredly not be disputed, that the high name which Alcuin had acquired among his contemporaries for his learning and piety, and the invariable respect that Charlemagne testified for his talents and virtues, and likewise for the promotion and diffusion of his plans of improvement, must have peculiarly concurred to raise up against him enemies equally powerful by their rank, and revengeful from their ignorance. These circumstances alone would justify us in believing that any attempt to injure his literary reputation would be secretly encouraged by those to whom he had rendered himself obnoxious, by the fame of his own works, as well as by his munificent patronage of learning. Accordingly we find him sometimes reproached for his want of attachment to the Roman classics, with a greater degree of virulence than the subject could require or warrant. Of a turn of mind naturally serious and religious, it is easy to be imagined that in an advanced period of his age, all his studies were bent towards theology; but that he was a sincere and fervent admirer of that dignity, beauty, and elevation of sentiment, which is often to be found in profane authors, may be strikingly illustrated in this expression to Charlemagne; *Upon you it chiefly depends to convert Paris into a christian Athens.*

'Throughout indeed the writings and letters of Alcuin, frequent quotations are scattered from the ancient poets, which indicate that he perused them with no less pleasure than attention. His young friend

friend Angilbert had received the appellation of Homer in that learned circle which he was so instrumental in forming at the court of Charlemagne. Alcuin wrote to him at Rome to request that he would not fail to bring him some relics, and pleasantly added, "Si nihil attuleris, ibis, Homere, foras" Unquestionably therefore the man who in speaking upon a subject so grave and pious as the one above-mentioned, can cite a verse from Ovid's Art of Love, ought not to be represented as the implacable foe of the heathen poets.'

Mr. Card does not deem it beneath the dignity of history to record the time and the place of the first interview between Charlemagne and his preceptor; and accordingly he proceeds to state that

'Charlemagne first met Alcuin at Pavia in 781, upon his return from Rome, and was so struck with the wisdom of his discourse, that he earnestly requested him to fix his residence at his court as soon as he had accomplished his mission, namely, that of receiving the pall for the archbishop of York, which had lately been conferred on him by the pope. To an invitation so flattering Alcuin gave his consent, provided that he obtained the permission of his king and archbishop, and that he might also be allowed to revisit his country.

'Alcuin may, indeed, be justly regarded as a phenomenon for his age If he had not sounded the depths, he had at least stepped into most paths of learning, and therefore was eminently qualified, from the versatility of his genius and the penetration of his judgment, to form and develope the taste of Charlemagne for the arts and sciences. In the study of logic, rhetoric, and astronomy, subjects that have such a peculiar tendency to sharpen, enlarge, and elevate the human capacity, Alcuin found a pupil whose high birth and almost invariable attention to the affairs of state, did not, however, prevent him from feeling and displaying an enthusiastic admiration of them. Had the preceptor been inflamed with ambition, from the great ascendancy that he had gained over Charlemage, he might safely have aspired to the rank of his minister. But far from employing his influence with him to promote his own interest and grandeur, it should be recorded, to the praise of this recluse student, that he solely used it in directing his attention towards objects of utility and benevolence.'

So great was the desire of this mighty potentate to promote learning, that he even made it the path to political elevation:

'Conspicuous examples of this (says Mr. Card) we meet with in the history of his reign. It will be sufficient to mention only the names of Eginhard and Amalarius, the former of whom filled for so many years the place of his secretary or chancellor, (for these titles were indiscriminately applied to him by the writers of the times,) and the latter was selected from a crowd of candidates as his ambassador to Michael, the emperor of the east. His passion for letters and encouragement of them were indeed so great and universally known, that two learned Scotchmen, in the certainty of obtaining his protection, cried out as he passed along the highway, *Science to be sold.* This singular conduct immediately arrested his attention; he ordered them

to

to be presented to him, and having found that they really could perform what they had professed, afterwards promoted them to posts of trust and honor, suitable to their abilities.

'There is not certainly a more striking feature in the character of Charlemagne than his uniform encouragement of men of genius, both in the church and state. Not content with bestowing upon Theodolphus the bishopric of Orleans, he gave him likewise the abbey of Fleury, and several other abbeys. Hilduin, one of the members of the academy, possessed at the same time those of St. Dennis, of St. Germain de Prés, of St. Medard de Soissons, the revenues of which were very considerable; while Alcuin received four abbeys, and various other preferments, which exposed him to the envy and hatred of his less favoured competitors.

'From the numerous possessions and jurisdictions which Alcuin enjoyed, Elipand, a bishop of Spain, in a theological dispute with him, takes the opportunity to utter some severe reproaches upon his overgrown opulence; but authentic evidence is not wanting to rescue the memory of Alcuin from the charge of his mind being corrupted by prosperity. He frequently expressed an earnest wish to resign those gifts, which he had solely accepted upon the pressing solicitation of his sovereign, because the several duties annexed to them occasioned too long an interruption to those literary pursuits which constituted the chief happiness of his life. But no solicitations on his part, however frequent and sincere, could induce Charlemagne to transfer even some of his abbeys to his disciples, and thus leave to him the means of freely prosecuting his favourite studies.'

Whether or not we may applaud the views, politically considered, which governed Charlemagne in the maxims illustrated in the subsequent anecdote, we must admit the humour and the effect of the stratagem:

'The following expedient, which he adopted to cure his nobles of their extravagance in dress, ought not to be passed over in silence, as it strikingly pourtrays the manners of the times. The Emperor himself commonly wore the simplest attire, except upon occasions of great pomp and splendour. In his doublet of otter's skin, put over his woollen tunic, and his sash of a blue colour, he was scarcely to be distinguished from the meanest of his subjects. One morning, having perceived his courtiers decked out in their most costly habiliments, he proposed that they should immediately take the exercise of hunting. His invitation, or rather command, admitted of no refusal, for small is the distinction between these words, when they fall from the lips of a monarch. He appeared in a cloak of sheep's skin, tied negligently across his shoulders, and which afforded him a good covering during a heavy fall of snow, that, most opportunely to his wishes, happened while they were attending him in this recreation. But their silks were torn by the brambles and spoiled by the snow. When the chace was finished, benumbed with cold, and anxious to repair the damage done to their dresses, they begged leave to withdraw. The malicious monarch foresaw and prevented their intentions, by pressing them to follow his example, and dry their clothes before

before a great fire, which he had ready for that purpose. Although highly delighted with their embarrassment, he affected not to perceive the effects of the fire in drying their dresses, and shrivelling them into the most uncouth shapes. In dismissing them from his presence, he said, "To-morrow we will take our revenge, and in the same habits."

'When they appeared the following day in their torn and disfigured garments, they furnished a most ridiculous spectacle to the whole court. The Emperor, after having rallied them on their absurdity, at last exclaimed, "Fools that ye are, now perceive the difference betwixt your luxury and my simplicity! My dress covers and defends me, and when worn out is of no consequence; whilst your rich attires, liable to be spoiled by the least accident, almost amount, in value, to a large treasure."

The ingenious writer before us animadverts on the praise bestowed by Montesquieu on Charlemagne's economy: but, if the observations of the divine are plausible, and conformable to modern notions, those of the President à Mortier are founded on more just views of the times, and on a more just appreciation of effects and consequences. In estimating conduct, we must ever connect it with situation and circumstances. On the whole, however, we must allow that this performance shews its author to be a man of enlarged views and liberal sentiments. If we do not discover in it traces of deeper research than has already been frequently made, and if we do not meet with disclosures of matters that before had lain concealed, (which Mr. Card induces his readers to expect,) yet we are beholden to him for a fair, authentic, and well digested account of a highly interesting period.

ART. XI. *An Account of the Empire of Marocco, and the District of Suse*; compiled from Miscellaneous Observations made during a long Residence in and various Journies through these Countries. To which is added an accurate and interesting Account of Timbuctoo, the great Emporium of central Africa. By James Grey Jackson, Esq. Illustrated with 13 Engravings and Maps. 4to. pp. 285. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol and Son. 1809.

MR. Jackson informs us in his preface that the materials of his book were composed during a residence of sixteen years in different parts of the Empire of Marocco, and were at first intended as memoranda for his own use only, but that he was induced by Lord Moira to give them to the public: to which measure he was also incited by reflecting on the very slender knowlege which we hitherto possess of the interior of Barbary; our descriptions of that country consisting generally of the narratives of journies to the Emperor's Court, undertaken

taken for a local and temporary object, and consequently unproductive of satisfactory information respecting the country at large. In order to obtain a thorough acquaintance with the moral and political character of a nation so different from our own, a traveller must, as Mr. Jackson justly remarks, have long resided on the spot, have had access to the inhabitants in public as well as private life, and, above all, have acquired an accurate and practical intimacy with the Arabic language, the peculiarities of which are such as to lead the imperfect scholar into perpetual misapprehensions. Of authors previous to the present age, Mr. Jackson considers Leo Africanus to have given by far the best account of Marocco. In late years, great attention has been bestowed on Africa, but the judgment exercised in the pursuit of discovery has not been equal to the ardour of the intention. The progress of our enterprizing countryman, Parke, was much impeded by his imperfect knowlege of the temper and prejudices of the natives, as well as by his injudicious plan of travelling in an European dress; and Hornemann, although more prudent in the latter respect, was by no means accurate in his conceptions of the African character.

The volume before us consists of the following divisions: Chapter I. describes the geographical limits of the Empire of Marocco and its several provinces. II. Rivers. III. Climate and Face of the Country. IV. Soil and Culture. V. Zoology. VI. Minerals and Vegetables. VII. Population. VIII. National Manners. IX. Observations on the Mohammedan Religion. X. Language of Africa. XI. Commerce of Marocco and Suse. XII. Ship-wrecks and Treatment of Captives XIII. Traffic with the interior of Africa by the City of Timbuctoo. The book is concluded by an Appendix, containing an account of the species of plague which raged in the Empire of Marocco in 1799 and 1800.—In our observations, we shall pursue, as nearly as possible, the arrangement adopted by the author; classing our remarks, as well as our extracts, under the general heads to which they appear to us to belong.

Geographical Descriptions.—West Barbary, or the Empire of Marocco, extends southwards from Ceuta along the coast of the Atlantic to the 28th degree of N. lat., a length of more than six hundred English miles in a straight line. Its breadth is various, being from two to four hundred English miles, according to the particular quarter at which the computation may be made. In this definition of extent is included the province of Suse, which forms nominally the southern part of the Empire, but, from circumstances of local situation, is in a great measure independent of the Imperial Government. The Atlas Mountains extend

extend in a N. E. direction almost the whole length of the Empire. They are at a considerable distance from the sea, but are notwithstanding visible from it in many places, on account of their great height. From Mogodor, the central part of this immense ridge may be seen, covered with snow, at a distance of 150 miles. These mountains consist of two extensive chains, called from their position the North and South Atlas, and from them proceed the various rivers which traverse West Barbary and fall into the Atlantic. The different stages of their elevation present a considerable variety of climate; and their influence on the adjacent plains seems to be equally salubrious with that of the Andes in America, the air of Marocco being healthy and invigorating. The soil also is in general very rich, producing wheat and barley in great abundance, as well as the fruits which belong to southern climates.

The varieties of the *Animal Kingdom* are considerable in Marocco. Among these, the Hyæna is particularly described by Mr. Jackson; and though its countenance is ferocious, its disposition is said to be rather stupid than fierce. Wherever rocks or caverns are seen in Barbary, this animal is to be found. We extract some of the particulars which are descriptive of it:

'The mode of hunting this animal is singular; a party of ten or twelve persons, accompanied with as many dogs of various kinds, go to the cavern which they have previously ascertained to be the haunt of the hyæna; one of the party then strips himself naked, and taking the end of a rope with a noose to it in one hand, he advances gradually into the cave, speaking gently, and in an insinuating tone of voice, pretending to fascinate the hyæna by words; when he reaches the animal, he strokes him down the back, which appears to soothe him; he then dexterously slips the noose round his neck, and instantly pulling the rope to indicate to those on the outside of the cave, who hold the other end, that it is fixed, he retires behind, throwing a handkerchief or cloth over the eyes of the hyæna; the men then pull the rope from without, whilst he who fixes the noose urges the animal forward, when the dogs attack him. Some of the Shelluhs (natives of the South Atlas) are very expert at securing the hyæna in this manner, and although there may be some danger in case the rope breaks, yet the man who enters the cave always carries a dagger, or large knife with him, with which he has considerably the advantage, for this animal is by no means so ferocious as he appears to be: in the southern Atlas I have seen them led about by the boys; a rope being fastened round the animal's neck, and a communicating rope attached to it on either side, three or four yards long, the end of each being held by a boy, keep him perfectly secure. It is confinement that is inimical to a hyæna, and which increases his ferocity. There are other modes of hunting this stupid animal,

animal, either in the night with dogs, or by shooting him; but he never comes out of his cave in the day-time, but sits at the further end of it, staring with his eyes fixed. Their general character is not to be afraid of man, nor indeed to attack or avoid him; they will, however, attack and destroy sheep, goats, poultry, asses, and mules, and are very fond of the intoxicating herb, called Hashisha. The hyæna is said to live to a great age.'

From the hyæna, Mr. Jackson passes to an animal of a more gracious character, the Gezel or Antelope. Arabian poets are fond of complimenting the ladies by comparing their eyes to those of the gazel, and Mr. Jackson's imagination seems to kindle when descanting on this animating topic. 'Much art,' he informs us, 'is employed by the Arabian females to make their eyes appear like those of this delicate animal. Eyes originally black and lively are made to appear larger and more languishing by tinging the outer corner with *El Kabel fidelly*, a preparation of lead ore which gives an apparent elongation to the eye. The eye-lashes and eye-brows being also blackened with this composition, they appear *peculiarly soft and languishing*; it is said also to *improve and strengthen the sight*.' After this captivating enumeration, Mr. Jackson proceeds to favour his readers with an Arabian sonnet, illustrative of his remarks. It is the address of a lover to his mistress, and is presented by the author in three shapes; in the Arabic character; then in Arabic words in the Roman character; and lastly in an English translation executed by himself. Our fair readers, we believe, will be contented with the latter:

'Say, thou Antelope in beauty,
Since permitted to return,
Say, what is a lover's duty
Who with *ardent fire doth burn*.
Sympathise with him who loves you,
Crown of all my hopes and joys,
'Tis your constant swain approves you,
His Gazel all his soul employs.'

We would observe, *en passant*, that the tautological expression of 'burning with ardent fire,' shews that the author possesses no 'critical mastery of language;' a remark which is farther confirmed by an unfortunate use of the active for the passive mood, in the same page, in the phrase 'the antelope soon fatigues:' but we pass with pleasure from animadversions on style, to a consideration of the useful matter with which Mr. Jackson frequently presents his readers.

Africa has been, from time immemorial, the nursery of Locusts; and we have here an account of that destructive insect which fully coincides with the affecting picture given in the Old Testament:

'Locusts

'Locusts are produced from some unknown physical cause, and proceed from the Desert, always coming from the south. When they visit a country, it behoves every individual to lay in a provision against a famine; for they are said to stay three, five, or seven years. During my residence in West and South Barbary, those countries suffered a visitation from them during seven years. They have a government among themselves, similar to that of the bees and ants; and when the (Sultan Jerraad) king of the locusts rises, the whole body follow him, not one solitary straggler being left behind to witness the devastation. When they have eaten all other vegetation, they attack the trees, consuming first the leaves, and then the bark, so that the country, in the midst of summer, from their unsparing rapacity, bears the face of winter. In my travels, I have seen them so thick on the ground, as sometimes actually to have covered my horse's hoofs, as he went along; it is very annoying to travel through a host of them, as they are continually flying in your face, and settling on your hands and clothes. At a distance, they appear, in the air, like an immense cloud, darkening the sun; and whilst employed in devouring the produce of the land, it has been observed that they uniformly proceed one way, as regularly as a disciplined army on its march; nor will it be possible to discover a single one going a different way from the rest. In travelling from Mogodor to Tangier, before the plague in 1799, the country was covered with them: a singular incident then occurred at El Araiche; the whole country from the confines of Sahara to that place was ravaged by them, but after crossing the river El Kos, they were not to be seen, though there was nothing to prevent them from flying across it; moreover, they were all moving that way, that is to the north; but when they reached the banks of the river, they proceeded eastward, so that the gardens and fields north of El Araiche were full of vegetables, fruits, and grain. The Arabs of the province of El Garb considered this remarkable circumstance, as an evident interposition of Providence.

'This curse of heaven can only be conceived by those who have seen the dismal effects of their devastation: the poor people, by living on them, become meagre and indolent, for no labour will yield fruit, whilst the locusts continue increasing in numbers. In the rainy season they partially disappear, and at the opening of the spring the ground is covered with their young; those crops of corn which are first mature, and the grain which becomes hardened before the locust attains its full growth, are likely to escape, provided there be other crops less forward for them to feed upon.

'In the year 1799, these destructive insects were carried away into the Western Ocean by a violent hurricane; and the shores were afterwards covered with their dead bodies, which in many places emitted a pestilential smell; that is, wherever the land was low, or where the salt water had not washed them; to this event succeeded a most abundant crop of corn, the lands which had lain fallow for years, being now cultivated; but the produce of the cultivation was accompanied with a most infectious and deadly plague, a calamity of which the locusts have often been observed to be the fore-runners.'

Of

Of the tribe of reptiles, in Marocco, the most remarkable is the famous *Boa Constrictor*:

'The *Boab*, or desert Snake, is an enormous monster, from twenty to eighty feet long, as thick as a man's body, and of a dingy colour: this inhabitant of Sahara is not venomous, though it is not less destructive: the Arabs (speaking of it figuratively,) affirm, that as it passes along the desert it fires the ground with the velocity of its motion. It is impossible to escape it; it will twist itself round an ox, and after crushing its bones, will swallow it gradually, after which it lies supinely on the ground two or three days, unable to proceed till the animal be digested. Two of these monsters stationed themselves near the road from Marocco to Terodant, near to the latter city, a few years since; one of them was killed, the other remained there several days, and prevented travellers from passing the road; they were both young ones, being about twenty feet long. Various stories are related by the Arabs of Sahara respecting the Boahs; but they are mostly ingenious fables, originally intended to inculcate some moral truth, or trait of human nature, which, by the embellishments of tradition, added to the credulity of the Arabs, are now related as facts. Without speaking of all the various kinds of serpents which are either timid, harmless, or not venomous, I must observe, that

'The *Domestic Serpents* claim some attention. In the city of Marocco these animals abound; there is scarcely a house without its domestic serpent, which is sometimes seen moving along the roofs of the apartments; they are never molested by the family, who would not hurt them on any consideration, conceiving them a benediction on the household; they have been known to suck the breasts of women whilst asleep, and retire without offering any further injury. They are so susceptible as to be sensible of enmity towards them, and it is thought imprudent to incur their displeasure; for this reason the inhabitants of Marocco treat them kindly, and as members of the family, not wishing to disturb an animal that claims the rights of hospitality by settling in their house.'

The *Population* of the Empire of Marocco considerably exceeds the amount which has hitherto been supposed, being fifteen millions. The principal cities are, Fas, (commonly called Fez,) containing 380,000 inhabitants; Marocco, the Imperial residence, 270,000; and Mequinas, 110,000. Next to these in population is Terodant, an inland town with 25,000 inhabitants; and, on the coast, Rabat, 25,000; Sallee, 18,000; Tetuan, 16,000; Saffy, 12,000; and Mogodor, 10,000.

The City of Marocco is situated in a fertile plain, interspersed with groves of lofty palm trees, and bounded on the East by the snowy mountains of Atlas, distant from the city about thirty miles. It was built in 1052, and bears marks of having been more extensive and flourishing in former ages than it is at present. The ruins of decayed houses encumber the

streets, and form an impediment to cleanliness. It is surrounded by very thick walls, made of a cement of lime and sandy earth, put in cases, and beaten together with square rammers. The atmosphere here is very healthy, the Atlas mountains defending the city from the Shume or hot wind of the desert. Marocco is properly the capital of the southern division of the Empire; and the capital of the northern division is Mequinas, which city stands in a beautiful valley about sixty miles inland from Sallee: but its interior is not equal to the environs, the streets not being paved, and mud consequently accumulating in the rainy season. The inhabitants are extremely hospitable; their manners are mild; and the beauty of the women is renowned throughout the Empire.

Fas, or Fez, is both more populous and more antient than either of the cities which we have mentioned, having been founded in the year 786. In opulence, however, it is not equal to them. The houses have flat roofs, covered with terras, on which the inhabitants spread carpets in summer to enjoy the cool breezes of the evening; they are large buildings; and in the centre of each is an open quadrangle surrounded by a gallery, which communicates with the stair-case, and into which the doors of the different apartments open. The principal houses have cisterns under them, to hold the water used in the baths. In the city are nearly two hundred caravanseras, or inns, each three stories high, and containing between fifty and a hundred apartments: but in these apartments consists the whole accommodation afforded by the inn-keeper, the traveller carrying his own bedding along with him, and buying his provisions out of doors. Each trade or profession has a separate department of the city assigned to it. In one quarter are seen the offices of notaries; in another, stationers; in a third, shoemakers; here is a fruit market, and there are wax chandlers.—Terodant is an antient town, situated to the southward, in the province or kingdom of Suse, of which it was formerly the capital. It has considerably decreased in population, and is now famous only for the manufacture of saltpetre, and of leather.

All these towns are in the interior of the country. The principal places on the coast, commencing from the North, are Tetuan, Ceuta, Tangier, Sallee, Rabat, Azamor, El Woladia, Saffy, Mogodor, and Agadeer, or Santa Cruz. Tetuan is convenient as a naval station, where a fleet may lie in safety while watering and victualling; Ceuta belongs to Spain; Tangier affords a supply of provisions to Gibraltar, and a station to Moorish pirates; Sallee is a walled town, but with a decaying harbour; Rabat, in its neighbourhood, a

populous place with some trade; Azamor, a healthy town, but ill adapted to trade; El Woladia, a spacious harbour, the entrance to which ought to be improved; Saffy, an unhealthy place in a confined situation. The next harbour is that of Mogodor, a town subsisting entirely by commerce, and built with more regularity than any other place in the Empire. It is fortified, and capable of making considerable resistance either on the land or the sea-side. The houses being all of stone, and white, the town has a beautiful appearance from a distance. It is the principal commercial port of the Moors on the Atlantic, and the only one which maintains a regular intercourse with Europe. To the southward of Mogodor is Agadeer, or Santa Cruz, the last port in the Emperor's dominions, with a safe and capacious roadstead. It might be a place of great trade with the interior of Africa, were it not a part of the tyrannical policy of the government of Marocco to discourage this town, on account of its distance from their influence. Beyond Santa Cruz, says Mr. Jackson, we find no port that is frequented by shipping, but a tract of coast which holds out great encouragement to commercial enterprize, and on which secure establishments might be effected.

National Manners.—The inhabitants of the Empire of Marocco may be divided into four classes, Moors, Arabs, Berebbers, and Shelluhs. They are thus described by Mr. Jackson:

'The *Moors* are the descendants of those who were driven out of Spain; they inhabit the cities of Marocco, Fas, Mequinas, and all the coast towns, as far southward as the province of Haha. Their language is a corrupt Arabic intermixed with Spanish.

'The *Arabs* have their original stock in Sahara, from whence they emigrate to the plains of Marocco, whenever the plague, famine, or any other calamity depopulates the country so as to admit of a new colony, without injuring the territory of the former inhabitants. These Arabs live in tents, and speak the language of the Koran, somewhat corrupted. They are a restless and turbulent people, continually at war with each other: in one province a rebellious kabyle, or clan, will fight against a neighbouring loyal one, and will thus plunder and destroy one another, till, fatigued by the toils of war, they mutually cease, when, the next year perhaps, the rebellious clan will be found fighting for the Emperor against the former loyal one, now become rebellious. This plan of setting one tribe against another is an act of policy of the Emperor, because if he did not, in this manner, quell the broils continually breaking out amongst them, he would be compelled, in order to preserve tranquillity in his dominions, to employ his own army for that purpose, which is generally occupied in more important business.

'The *Berebbers* inhabit the mountains of Atlas north of the city of Marocco, living generally in tents; they are a robust, nervous people, having a language peculiar to themselves, which differs more from the

the Arabic, or general language of Africa, than any two languages of Europe differ from each other; it is probably a dialect of the ancient Carthaginian. In travelling through the Berebber Kabyles of Ait Imure, and Zemure Shelluh, I noticed many who possessed the old Roman physiognomy. The general occupation of these people is husbandry, and the rearing of bees for honey and wax.

'The *Shelluhs* inhabit the Atlas mountains, and their various branches south of Marocco; they live generally in towns, and are, for the most part, occupied in husbandry like the Berebbers, though differing from them in their language, dress, and manners; they live almost entirely on (Assoua) barley-meal made into gruel, and barley roasted or granulated, which they mix with cold water, when travelling: this is called *Zimeta*. They occasionally indulge in *cuscasoe*, a nutritive farinaceous food, made of granulated flour, and afterwards boiled by steam, and mixed with butter, mutton, fowls, and vegetables. Many families among these people are reported to be descended from the Portuguese, who formerly possessed all the ports on the coast; but who, after the discovery of America, gradually withdrew thither.'—

'The Moorish dress resembles that of the ancient patriarchs, as represented in paintings; that of the men consists of a red cap and turban, a (Kumja) shirt, which hangs outside of the drawers, and comes down below the knee, a (Caftan) coat, which buttons close before, and down to the bottom, with large open sleeves; over which, when they go out of doors, they throw carelessly, and sometimes elegantly, a hayk or garment of white cotton, silk, or wool, five or six yards long, and five feet wide: the Arabs often dispense with the caftan, and even with the shirt, wearing nothing but the hayk.'—

'The people of this empire being born subjects of an arbitrary despot, they may be said to have no established laws; they know no other than the will of the prince, and if this should deviate, as it sometimes does, from the moral principles laid down in the Koran, it must be obeyed. Where the Emperor resides, he administers justice, in person, generally twice, and sometimes four times a week, in the (M'shoire) place of audience, whither all complaints are carried: here access is easy; he listens to every one, foreigners or subjects, men or women, rich or poor; there is no distinction, every one has a right to appear before him, and boldly to explain the nature of his case; and although his person is considered as sacred, and established custom obliges the subject to prostrate himself and to pay him rather adoration than respect, yet every complainant may tell his story without the least hesitation or timidity; indeed, if any one is abashed, or appears diffident, his cause is weakened in proportion. Judgment is always prompt, decisive, plausible, and generally correct.'

Whatever may be the kind of justice thus administered to those who have little to lose, it is clear that a tribunal, in which the will of the judge forms the law, must be replete with danger to those whose property is an object of temptation. Accordingly, the Emperor exercises an absolute despotism over his

Bashaws and Alkaids, who in their turn domineer with equal rapacity over his subjects at large; and when they learn, by means of their spies, that an individual has acquired considerable property, they contrive a cause of accusation for the purpose of extorting money from him. Such a mode of government is fatal to all virtue among the people. It renders them suspicious, deceitful, and cruel; strangers to every social tie, and even to the affections of kindred; the father distrusting the son, and the son fearing the father. The vices of sensuality are carried to a great excess among them; and so far are they from having any consciousness of their degradation and ignorance, compared with other nations, that they consider themselves as the first people in the world, and contemptuously term all others barbarians. Happily, however, exceptions to this general character may be found, many individuals giving evidence of feelings above the ordinary level of their countrymen; and fortitude under adversity is a characteristic possessed by this nation in a high degree. The Moor may be said never to despair; no bodily suffering, no calamity, makes him complain; he is resigned in all things to the will of God, and waits in patient hope for an amelioration of his condition.

Hereditary distinctions are unknown among the Moors; by birth they are all equal; and they admit no difference of rank except such as is derived from official employments, on the resignation of which the occupant mixes again with the common class of citizens. — Mr. Jackson thus represents their domestic manners:

'The Moors are, for the most part, more cleanly in their persons, than in their garments. They wash their hands before every meal, which, as they use no knives or forks, they eat with their fingers: half a dozen persons sit round a large bowl of *cuscasoe*, and, after the usual ejaculation (Bismillah) "In the name of God!" each person puts his hand to the bowl, and taking up the food, puts it by a dexterous jerk, into his mouth, without suffering his fingers to touch the lips. However repugnant this may be to our ideas of cleanliness, yet the hand being always washed, and never touching the mouth in the act of eating, these people are by no means so dirty as Europeans have sometimes hastily imagined. They have no chairs or tables in their houses, but sit cross-legged on carpets and cushions; and at meals, the dish or bowl of provisions is placed on the floor.

'The women are not less cleanly than the men; for besides performing the usual ablutions before and after meals, they wash their face, hands, arms, legs, and feet, two or three times a day, which contributes greatly to heighten their beauty. The poorer classes, however, look deplorable, and excite disgust. The faces of the old women appear shrivelled, from the immoderate use of cosmetics and paint during their youth.'—

'When

'When a Mooselmin is inclined to marry, he makes enquiry of some confidential servant respecting the person of her mistress, and if he receives a satisfactory description of the lady, an opportunity is sometimes procured to see her at a window, or other place; this interview generally determines whether the parties are to continue their regards; if the suitor be satisfied with the lady, he seeks an occasion of communicating his passion to the father, and proposes to marry his daughter. The father's consent being obtained, he sends presents to the lady, according to his circumstances, which being accepted, the parties are supposed to be betrothed, and marriage follows.'—

'It is not expected that the woman should have a fortune, or a settlement; but if the father be rich, he generally gives a dowry to his daughter, and a quantity of pearls, rubies, diamonds, &c. The dowry remains the property of the female, and in case of a separation, by consent of the husband, is returned to her: these separations proceed from various causes, as barrenness, the disappointment of expectation, or incompatability of disposition. Separation, however, not originating in the above causes, is reprobated as immoral and disreputable.'

Language.—The Arabic is, in the opinion of the Mohammedans, the most eloquent of languages, and is spoken perhaps by a greater proportion of the inhabitants of the world than any other. In traversing the African continent, whether from North to South or from East to West, persons are every where to be found, at least in the great cities, who are acquainted with Arabic. In Turkey, Syria, Persia, and India, it is understood by many of the well-educated classes; and a knowlege of the Koran-Arabic leads speedily to an acquaintance with its other dialects, as well as with the Hindoostanee. Europeans experience considerable difficulty in acquiring Arabic, from the difference between its sounds and those of their own tongue, but especially from their not learning, while studying it, the peculiar distinctions of the synonimous letters. Sir William Jones, accurately as he knew the language from books, was not able to converse intelligibly with a native Arab; a circumstance of which he was not conscious till he went to India. An European gentleman who had been many years in Marocco, and accounted himself an Arabic scholar, pronounced the synonimous letters so inaccurately, that an Arab, after having listened one day to a long address from him, exclaimed, "I entreat thee to speak Arabic that I may understand thee." Elfi Bey is said to have declared that he had found only one European whose Arabic he could easily comprehend.—Mr. Jackson thinks that, if the present ardour for African discovery should continue, the learned world may expect to recover a part of the lost works of Greece and Rome, in Arabic translations made when Arabian literature was in its

zenith, and confined since that time to libraries in the interior of Africa, as well as in Arabia.

Our intercourse with Marocco has been greatly impeded by the imperfect degree in which our Envoys possessed the language. What expectations can be entertained of success, in a negotiation conducted through the medium of an illiterate interpreter, who is generally a Jew, and a devoted subject of the Emperor? Such men are most unfit depositaries of national secrets, and dare not on pain of death take the freedom of using to the Emperor many expressions which are essential to the conclusion of a treaty. In consequence of this ignorance of the respective languages of the negociating parties, treaties have been made between Great Britain and Marocco without being understood on either part; and, on our side, without being translated till several months after their conclusion. Mr. Jackson relates (page 218), that the Emperor of Marocco, being desirous to open a direct communication with the British Court, addressed a letter in Arabic to our Sovereign, which remained unanswered during a great length of time, on account of the language not being intelligible. It had been sent to one or both of our Universities, but in vain; the difference of punctuation preventing it from being translated, till it happened to fall into Mr. Jackson's hands.

Shipwrecks, and fate of the captives.—Our feelings are so much interested by the information afforded by Mr. Jackson on this topic, that we are desirous to make it as generally known as our pages can render it. That part of the west coast of Africa, which lies between the 32d and the 20th degree of latitude, is a desert country, interspersed with immense hills of loose sand, which is often blown about in such a manner as to create the appearance of a hazy atmosphere, without giving any notice of the vicinity of land; the water also is so shallow, that ships often strike when at a great distance from the beach; and a current sets in from the west towards the coast with great rapidity, with which the navigator is generally unacquainted: he therefore loses his reckoning, and finds his ship aground. The consequence is a surrender to the Arabs, who, attracted by the wreck, come down on the coast; and the captives are forthwith stripped and marched, barefooted, up the country. Their feet, unaccustomed to the burning sand, soon begin to swell: but the Arab, himself abstemious and unexhausted, has no sympathy with his prisoner. These people are in the habit of going fifty miles in a day without tasting food, and are contented at night with a little barley-meal mixed with cold water. The seamen

are

are marched about in this miserable manner from one market to another, till those who survive fall into the hands of itinerant Jews; who probably write to Mogodor with a notice of the wreck, and of the opportunity of redeeming the prisoners. The Consul at Mogodor, unable himself to supply funds for their redemption, can do nothing but adopt the circuitous mode of writing to the Consul-general at Tangier. This proceeding occupies nearly a month; and, during this interval, the captives are employed in laborious and unhealthy services, and the younger part of them are in danger of being seduced to become Mohammedans. Mr. Jackson computes that the vessels wrecked on this coast, the loss of which has been learnt by accident, may amount, between the years 1790 and 1806, to the number of thirty, divided as follows: English 17, French 5, American 5, Dutch, Danish, &c. 3. Of the English vessels, the crews were in number probably two hundred, for whom he thus accounts:

Drowned, killed, or induced to embrace the Mohammedan religion, - - - 80
Dispersed in the Desert from delay in redeeming them, 40
Redeemed, after being in captivity from one to five years, 80

Now, all the misery arising from this dispersion, as well as from the lengthened detention of those who are ultimately released, might be prevented by the simple expedient of placing an adequate sum of money in the hands of the vice-consul, or of a merchant of respectability at Mogodor;—a measure which we cannot press too strongly on the attention of our countrymen.

Commerce.—The great emporium of central Africa, the point of assemblage for the caravans which traverse its deserts, is Timbuctoo, a city situated about thirteen hundred miles S. S. E. of the town of Marocco. It stands in a plain surrounded by sandy eminences, about twelve miles north of the Niger; and its circumference is said to amount to twelve miles: but the houses being spacious, and having, for the most part, no upper apartments, the population is not proportionally great. As it is the resort of nations of various religions, the government has wisely adopted the plan of avoiding interference with their tenets. The police also is said to be very good, and the climate is considered as healthy. The accommodation for travellers is similar to that which has been described in the Empire of Marocco. Camels, horses, drivers, and merchants, rendezvous at a caravansera, or large inn, called a Fondaque, having an open space in the middle, round which are built rooms sufficiently large for a bed and a table. Each

merchant hires a room, and proceeds to exchange his commodities till he has invested the whole in the produce of the country; which he endeavours to accomplish before the month of September, in order to be ready for the caravans which take their departure in various directions at that time. The Niger near Timbuctoo is said to be about as wide as the Thames at London, but so rapid in the middle that the boats navigating it must proceed along the banks to avoid the current.

A large caravan is called an akkabaah, and consists of several hundred loaded camels, accompanied by their Arab proprietors, who hire them to the merchants at a very moderate rate. They cannot pursue their track across the desert in a direct line, but find it necessary to turn occasionally to the right or the left, according to the situation of certain cultivated spots, interspersed in the desert, like islands in the ocean, and called *Oases*, from the Arabic *Elwah*, which serve as watering-places both for men and camels; the hot winds called Shume being often so violent, as to exhale the water that is carried in skins for the use of the travellers. These winds driving the loose sand along the plains, the drifting surface resembles the waves of the ocean, and the desert is hence aptly termed by the Arabs, "a sea without water." In 1805, a caravan proceeding from Timbuctoo northward was disappointed of water at one of the usual watering-places, when two thousand men and 1800 camels perished with thirst. The Arabs often prefer travelling in the night, in order to avoid the heat, and are guided in their course by the stars. They generally go between three and four English miles in an hour, and proceed during seven hours in a day: but they find it necessary to pass so much time at the Oases, that a journey from Marocco to Timbuctoo is the work of four months. In passing through the respective territories of the different Arab clans or tribes, they are protected, in the name of the tribe, by two or more of the individuals belonging to it. The tribes receive a remuneration for this safe-guard, and are so faithful to their engagement that they would not fail to take ample revenge for any assault which was made against the caravan, while it was under their protection. The habits of the travellers are thus described:

'Those who have philosophy enough to confine their wants solely to what nature requires, would view the individual happiness of the people who compose the caravans, with approbation. Their food, dress, and accommodation, are simple and natural; proscribed from the use of wine, and intoxicating liquors, by their religion, and exhorted by its principles to temperance, they are commonly satisfied

with a few nourishing dates, and a draft of water; and they will travel for weeks successively without any other food; at other times, a little barley-meal and cold water is the extent of their provision, when they undertake a journey of a few weeks across the Desert; living in this abstemious manner, they never complain, but solace themselves with a hope of reaching their native country, singing occasionally during the journey, whenever they approach any habitation, or whenever the camels appear fatigued; these songs are usually sung in trio, and in the chorus all the camel drivers, who have a musical voice, join; it is worthy observation, how much these songs renovate the camels, and the symphony and time they keep surpasses what any one would imagine, who had not heard them. In traversing the Desert, they generally contrive to terminate the day's journey at l'Asaw, a term which they appropriate to our four o'clock, P. M. so that between that period and the setting sun, the tents are pitched, prayers said, and the (Lashaw) supper got ready; after which they sit round in a circle, and talk till sleep overcomes them, and next morning, at break of day, they proceed again on their journey.'

One of the principal branches of traffic from the interior of Africa to Marocco is the import of slaves. According to Mr. Jackson's account of their treatment, it is much more humane than the impressions generally entertained of the Moorish character would lead us to expect:

'These slaves are treated very differently from the unhappy victims who used to be transported from the coast of Guinea, and our settlements on the Gambia, to the West India islands. After suffering those privations, which all who traverse the African Desert must necessarily and equally submit to, masters, as well as servants and slaves, they are conveyed to Fas and Marocco, and after being exhibited in the sock, or public market-place, they are sold to the highest bidder, who carries them to his home, where, if found faithful, they are considered as members of the family, and allowed an intercourse with the (horraht) free-born women of the household. Being in the daily habit of hearing the Arabic language spoken, they soon acquire a partial knowledge of it, and the Mohammedan religion teaching the unity of God, they readily reject paganism, and embrace Mohammedanism; their Mooselmin masters then instil into their vacant minds, ready to receive the first impression, the fundamental principles of the Mooselmin doctrine; the more intelligent learn to read and write, and afterwards acquire a partial knowledge of the Koran; and such as can read and understand one chapter, from that time procure their emancipation from slavery, and the master exults in having converted an infidel, and in full faith, expects favour from heaven for the action, and for having liberated a slave. When these people do not turn their minds to reading, and learning the principles of Mohammedanism, they generally obtain their freedom after eight or ten years servitude; for the more conscientious Mooselmin consider them as servants, and purchase them for about the same sum that they would pay in wages to a servant during the above period; at the expiration of which term, by giving them their liberty, they,

they, according to their religious opinions, acquire a blessing from God, for having done an act, which a Mooselmin considers more meritorious in the sight of Heaven, than the sacrifice of a goat, or even of a camel. This liberation is entirely voluntary on the part of the owner; and I have known some slaves so attached to their masters from good treatment, that when they have been offered their liberty, they have actually refused it, preferring to continue in servitude. It should not, however, be supposed, that the Arabs and Moors are always inclined thus to liberate these degraded people; on the contrary, some of them, particularly the latter, are obdurate, and make an infamous traffic of them, by purchasing, and afterwards intermarrying them, for the purposes of propagation and of sale, when they are placed in the public market-place, and there turned about, and examined in order to ascertain their value.'

Having now furnished our readers with ample specimens of Mr. Jackson's views on particular topics, it remains that we make a few remarks on the general merits of his book. We have already alluded to the imperfections of his style, and we might adduce a great variety of examples in support of the stricture. In one place, (page 12.) we have 'campaign' for *champaign*; in another, (162.) 'obligated' for *obliged*; and in a third, (240.) we find him unacquainted with the distinction between astrology and astronomy. The severity of criticism ought, however, in some measure to be disarmed by an apology in the preface, which expresses that a plain relation of facts was all that the author had in view, and by the consideration that his profession is not literary but mercantile. Our opinion is that the reader who expects in this book considerable novelty of local information will be gratified: but that he who carries expectation farther, and looks for skilful arrangement and enlightened conclusions, will be disappointed. Another circumstance also deserves to be noticed. The author, while he gives the strongest proofs of his own veracity, is not sufficiently distrustful of that of others. Much of his information is founded on the hear-say evidence of a rude people; yet the substance of their reports is communicated by him to the public, unaccompanied by those cautions which ought invariably to be applied to such doubtful testimony. Mr. Jackson promises eventually a farther volume on 'the political history of Marocco;' and we shall learn with pleasure that the intention is carried into effect, provided that he adopts the plan of laying facts and circumstances before us, and avoids the field of speculation. His authorities, also, should be distinctly given; all of which, in our judgment, may be accomplished without expanding the book to the size of a costly quarto.

We must add that Mr. Jackson has devoted one of his chapters, the ninth, to remarks on the Mohammedan religion; the

the character of which discussion is similar to that of the rest of the book. It corrects several popular errors in regard to the Mohammedan creed, and discovers considerable knowlege of its particular tenets, but evinces little felicity of illustration on grounds of general reasoning.—The maps and views are very neatly executed; and the former, which represent the Empire of Marocco and the route to Timbuctoo, though on a small scale, are perhaps the most accurate delineations of these unknown regions that we possess.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For OCTOBER, 1809.

LAW.

Art. 12. *A Practical Treatise on Powers.* By Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 604. 19s. Boards. Reed. 1808.

Art. 13. *Scintilla Juris*, or an Argument which hath been generally discussed under that Title, &c. against Mr. Sugden's Observations on that Subject. By W H. Rowe, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 60. Stratford. 1809.

The third section of the first chapter of Mr. Sugden's volume has called forth very warm and spirited animadversions from Mr. Rowe, whose former notions on the subject Mr. S. had very freely criticized. Mr. Sugden has not yet taken any notice of his shrewd and intelligent antagonist; and till he has done this, we should be premature in giving an opinion on the matter in dispute: more especially when it is considered that it is a point on which Mr. Fearne and Chief Justice Willes have taken different sides. We shall only observe that Mr. Rowe seems to us more fairly to construe the statute, and the cases which have been decided on it; while it appears to us equally clear that the *Scintilla* is a very forced device, not only unsupported by the statute, but directly contradictory of the intention and wholly out of the contemplation of the powers of it. That it was intended to accomplish all that Mr. Fearne and Mr. Sugden suppose it to effect, we entertain not the slightest doubt: but has the act been penned so as to do this? Has it been drawn up so as to perform what its framers proposed? How came this obvious consideration not to occupy the attention of either of the acute and ingenious combatants? All the puzzle, we suspect, will be found to have been occasioned by the want of a few additional words in the statute, or perhaps of a slight variation in the wording of it.—The industry with which Mr. Sugden has collected the cases which relate to his subject, his arrangement of them, and his discernment of their bearing and effect, intitle him to considerable praise. The clearness and distinctness which characterized his former volume will also be generally found to give value to the pages before us: but if his judgment appears to be more mature,

he

he seems to have been more pressed for want of time. Though the book is susceptible of being made much more perfect, it will form a valuable addition to the student's library.

Art. 14. *A Treatise on the Defects of the Debtor and Creditor Laws*, and the Consequences of Imprisonment for Civil Debt; or an Address to the Public in Behalf of honest Debtors and injured Creditors; with an Exposition of Facts interesting to Gentlemen of the Law; and impartial Observations on the Comparative Distinction between honest and fraudulent Debtors. By W. Minchin, Esq. 8vo. pp. 222. 4s. 6d. Tipper. 1809.

This important and able tract proceeds from the best motives, and indicates the most benevolent intentions. It is sober and dispassionate; and the advocate of the persecuted Debtor does not overlook the wrongs of the injured Creditor, but correctly draws the line between the deserving and the worthless in both the classes.—In a performance, however, which aims at the production of eminent practical good, we could have wished to have seen less of matter which might well have been spared; to have found fewer observations and more facts; and to have been convinced that the references to the remedies were more proportionate to the statement of the evils. In these respects, Mr. Minchin disappoints our expectations: but we must do him the justice to acknowlege that his tract is well calculated to incite others to supply what he has left imperfect. He is liberal in his praise of the dignified persons who preside in our supreme courts: but it is not praise alone that he bestows; for he records acts and measures which shew that his commendation is merited. The laws themselves, also, at the moment when he is pointing out their imperfections, receive from him a tribute of just approbation.

Mr. M. tells us that 'he has much satisfaction in observing, that any one who fairly and impartially traces the laws of England to their original principles, will be pleased in the contemplation of the virtue, wisdom, and order, with which they have manifestly been established. Legislators, philosophers, and moralists, of all ages, have contributed successfully to the improvement of those sacred master-principles which protect human society, and which are now recognised and revered by every good subject. They have been successively taught by scientific men, from the earliest dawn of theory and speculation to the present moment.'—'Our progress of jurisprudence, and the administration of our laws, display a most noble spectacle, when we contemplate the persevering efforts successively applied through a long course of ages. The principle of justice pervades the whole system, and extends to the minutest formality in legal proceedings; extricating every case as it arises from the dangerous application of discretionary power, and placing it under definite rules; contracting the means of arbitrary authority and extending the dominion of wisdom and mercy.'

The aim of the present treatise is stated to be 'to expedite the attainment of justice due to creditors, and to plead in favour of the suffering debtor.'—Mr. M. admits that 'the process of our courts, from the first act of arrest or commitment, to the period of charging the defendant in execution, is distinguished by order, precision, and requisite formality. Substantial justice is pursued with legal solemnity, and

and the claims of creditors are established or disproved by the highest authority and most unequivocal evidence.'

We have next a perspicuous and full summary of the statutes and judicial regulations which respect debtor and creditor; followed by suggestions highly worthy of attention, for better securing the attainment of a creditor's rights; and a like account is given of the institutions which have been formed for the relief of confined debtors.

We learn that 'from the various returns which have heretofore been made to the respective Committees of the House of Commons, as well as from the several statements procured by the imprisoned debtors, in their respective communications and correspondence with each other, it will appear that the aggregate number confined at one period, has been *communibus annis*, 2000 debtors, including the prisons of England, Ireland, and Wales.—Of these, it may be estimated, that, on an average, not more than one-third have been confined for debts not exceeding 20l.; and of these few, only a small comparative number remained to be charged in execution; the other two-thirds, consisting of 1334 persons, owing more than 20l. each, are consequently exempted from any benefit under the late act for their liberation; and instead of nine in ten of the prisoners throughout England and Wales being entitled to their release, after twelve months confinement on a judgment obtained, an average estimate will shew, that not more than 666 can be liberated by the most ample operation of this well-intentioned, though, it is apprehended, inadequate mode of relief. Of the 1334 not coming within the pale of relief, it is estimated, that 800 have wives; and on an average, each of these has three children, making together 4534 suffering persons not entitled to the benefit of liberation under this act.'

The subject of the interesting chapter on the relative situation of debtor and creditor is thus stated:—'In contemplating this important part of the subject, the attention will be directed towards a discovery of those motives which generally induce hostile measures against the debtor; the usual consequences of ill-judged, ill-advised, or vindictive proceedings; the absurd, oppressive, useless, and unjustifiable imprisonment of the debtor; the evils accruing to himself, his relatives and dependants, and the ultimate loss to his country: which will be succeeded by remarks on the fallacy of persecution; with some suggestions for better securing the attainment of justice to creditors, and a summary of the provisional amendments recommended by other writers.'

It was with great satisfaction that we found it announced, by a very learned law lord, (for whose professional attainments, while we differ most widely from his notions of politics and administrative measures, we entertain the highest respect,) that he is devoting his leisure to the revisal and amendment of this and other parts of the law.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 15. *Suggestions for the Prevention of that insidious and destructive Foe to the British Troops in the West Indies, commonly termed the Yellow-Fever.* With the Outline of a Plan of Military Hospitals, on a Principle and Construction, tending to introduce a more successful

cessful Treatment of the Sick. To which are added other Papers connected with the Subject. By Stewart Henderson, M.D. District Staff Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 114. 5s. Stockdale, Jun.

After a few observations on the ravages committed by the yellow-fever among the European troops in the West Indies, Dr. Henderson gives his opinion respecting the nature of this disease. He informs us that it is not imported, but generated on the spot; that it arises from marsh effluvia; that it is not contagious; and that the yellow, bilious, remittent, and intermittent fever of the West Indies, is the same disease, existing in different degrees of violence, or somewhat modified by peculiarity of constitution. These opinions are delivered as matters of fact, and very little reasoning of any kind is employed to enforce them. The principal object of the treatise, as it is expressed in the title, is to *prevent* this 'destructive foe;' for it appears to be admitted that, when it has once taken possession of the constitution, its *expulsion* is a matter of the greatest difficulty. In his directions for preventing the disease, then, Dr. H. proceeds on the principle that it always attacks those with the greatest violence who are of a full habit, and in a state of high health; while it is much less injurious to persons of a relaxed and debilitated frame, and who have reached that state of inirritability which is the usual consequence of residing in a hot climate. He advises that means should be adopted for inducing this state of relaxation and debility; and for this purpose he recommends that all the men who are sent to the West Indies should, during the course of their voyage, be put under the influence of mercury. The proposal is singular, such as may startle a timid practitioner, and which even the most resolute would not adopt without due consideration. It might also be objected to it, that the state into which the system is brought by mercury is not that of diminished irritability: but still we acknowlege that the suggestion appears worth attention; and it is certainly better than many of the projects that are daily offered to our notice.

This proposition, which occupies only a few of the first pages of the pamphlet, constitutes all its value; since the remainder is composed of a quantity of matter which, we imagine, must have been put together merely to give the pamphlet a *respectable size*. We must also remark that some passages savour strongly of puffing, and that the puffing is not well managed; not half so neatly as lottery-advertisements, which, indeed, have become real curiosities, and *chefs d'œuvre*. Thus, in a very long and fulsome dedication to the Duke of York, the author informs us that this prince, 'amidst numberless acts of condescending goodness, was pleased some years ago to honor the author in an official communication of personal approbation;' the whole dedication being evidently written in order to *bring in* this striking and important fact. A still more amusing instance occurs in the 14th page; where Dr. Stewart Henderson contrives to insert a parenthetical sketch of his life and adventures, which will no doubt prove highly edifying to all his readers, and more especially to the inhabitants of Birmingham, whence he dates.

Art. 16. *A Treatise on the Operation of Lithotomy*; in which are demonstrated the Dangers of operating with the Gorget, and the Superio-

Superiority of the more simple Operation with the Knife and Staff. Illustrated by Plates. By Rob. Allan, Surgeon. Fol. pp. 73, and five Plates. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1808.

We cannot enter into any report of the contents of this volume, without first expressing our strong disapprobation of the form in which it is given to the world. A treatise describing a surgical operation, which professes to contain information that may affect the lives of numbers, and which consequently ought to be read by all practitioners, is printed on the finest hot-pressed paper, with a large folio page, containing only 20 lines, and surrounded by a margin of between 3 and 4 inches:—the number of pages, with the exception of the explanation of the plates, is only 60; and we have found by computation that the matter would fill about 80 such pages as those of the English edition of Heberden's Commentaries:—the plates, in number only five, are but slight sketches;—and for all this we are to pay *a guinea and a half.*

The author, who comes before the public in this meretricious attire, informs us that he was formerly the apprentice and is now the assistant of Mr. Bell of Edinburgh; and that, although he is a young man, he conceives that the opportunities of acquiring professional knowlege, which he has enjoyed, may justify him in giving a decided opiniou on a practical question. This statement respecting himself may be received in two points of view; on the one hand, we admit that his situation has been favorable for the acquisition of knowlege: but on the other hand the pupil of Mr. Bell may be expected to be biassed in favor of his master's doctrines; and it may be reasonably doubted whether he be competent to decide on a controversy, respecting which he must almost unavoidably have been induced to form a partial judgment. However, the author has no scruples of this kind; for the sole object of his work is to shew the superiority of the operation by means of the scalpel, over that in which the gorget is used.—We have been led to touch on this controversial point in more than one of our late articles; and our readers are probably aware that our judgment coincides with that of Mr. Allan: but the object at present is rather to examine in what manner the writer has defended his opinion, than to inquire into the justness of it; to ascertain whether he has adduced any arguments which were not previously before the public, or whether the old are placed in a more intelligible or more forcible point of view.

He begins by a history of the progressive improvements, or rather changes, which the operation has undergone from the time of the antients to the present day. In this sketch, we see nothing that calls for either much commendation or much censure; it is, we believe, generally correct: but it is very concise, and is such an account as might easily be extracted from former systems, without the labor of referring to the authors themselves. In the latter part of the work, Mr. Allan appears more in the character of an original writer; where he enters on a critical examination of the merits of the two instruments, the gorget and the knife. Against the gorget he argues with much warmth, styling the operation in which it is employed horrible and murderous. His principal objections against it are, generally, that the surgeon

surgeon is cutting at random, and substituting a mechanical contrivance, which cannot be adapted to individual cases, for that scientific skill which may meet unforeseen difficulties, and may enable him to form his incision according to the circumstances of the patient. The individual objections to the gorget are, that it is liable to be driven into the pelvis, or between the bladder and the rectum, that the prostate gland is imperfectly divided, that the arteries are in danger of being cut, and that it is difficult to withdraw the gorget without wounding the parts through which it must pass. We confess that we approve of Mr. Allan's reasonings; since we think that the dangers which he points out are not imaginary, and that they principally attach to the gorget. The scalpel certainly requires a knowlege of the minute anatomy of the parts: but, without this minute knowlege, no one should presume to operate in any way; and if the surgeon be furnished with the necessary information, we apprehend less danger of improperly wounding any part, when the incision is performed under the immediate direction of a practised hand, than when it is accomplished by an apparatus which must necessarily always proceed in the same course.

We shall give our readers the arguments which the author uses in favor of the knife, in his own words; premising, however, that the quotation will afford a favorable specimen of the merits of the performance.

'1. It frequently happens that when a patient has labored long under calculus, the bladder is either in a thickened or a contracted state, or has such a degree of irritability, as renders it incapable of containing a table-spoonful of urine; in this state, if either the *bistouri caché* or gorget were used, we should inevitably wound it in its fundus; whereas with the knife we operate in perfect safety.

'2dly, It is evident that, if the stone be large, the incision of the gorget must be quite inadequate to its extraction without laceration; nay, the incision of the gorget barely admits the forceps, so that the operator is in danger of passing them betwixt the rectum and bladder, and grasping the stone through the coat of the latter. With the knife, he can safely enlarge his incision to any given dimensions.

'3dly, There is no danger of the point of the knife, like the beak of the gorget, starting from the groove of the staff, and missing the bladder; we pass it along, guided by the finger, and can enter the bladder safely in whatever position the staff may be held.

'4thly, Whenever the incision in the neck of the bladder is completed, the knife is withdrawn, and there is no danger of making a second cut in removing it, nor of the bladder wounding itself by contracting around the instrument.

'5thly, The only accident that is likely to occcur is the wounding the rectum; and although by caution this may be avoided, yet were it to happen, I do not conceive it to be of that alarming nature as to deter us from operating with the knife: it most commonly heals easily, and at worst would only form *fistula in ano*, curable by the operation: but, from what I have seen, I am confident that it is frequently wounded by the gorget, and passes unnoticed, being productive in truth of no dangerous consequences.'

Art.

Art. 47. *A Treatise on Inflammation, and other Diseases of the Liver, commonly called Bilious*; including the *Synochus Biliosa*; *Cholera Morbus*; Torpor; Schirrous; Biliary Calculi; which is preceded by a short Description of the Structure of the Liver, and the different physiological Opinions respecting the Use of the Bile. Lastly, is added a monthly List of Diseases, from the 1st of June, 1806, to the 30th of June, 1807, with the State of the Weather and Thermometer. By W. White, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Printed at Bath; and sold in London by Cadell and Davies. 1808.

In his preface, Mr. White informs us that his particular object in the composition of this volume is to give an account of a disease which he thinks has not been duly noticed by other writers, and to which he assigns the name of *Synochus biliosa*. This, however, we can scarcely regard as a sufficient apology for the undertaking, should it be found to require an apology, because Mr. White has already published a distinct treatise on this very disease: but he seems to regard his present work as a complete view of all the complaints to which the liver is subject; and he particularly points out the arrangement which he has formed of them, which he flatters himself 'will appear simple to the young practitioner, and afford him some assistance in discriminating the different morbid affections of the liver.' The merits of this arrangement we shall endeavour to appreciate.

Before he enters on the diseases of the liver, Mr. White gives some account of the structure of that organ itself, the secretion of the bile, its component parts, and the opinions which have been entertained respecting its uses in the animal œconomy. We had proceeded through a small part only of this introductory matter, when we discovered that Mr. White's method of writing consists almost entirely in making quotations from other authors, and even from such as are the best known and are in the most general circulation. He pursues this mode, indeed, without any desire of concealment, since his inverted commas fairly point out to the eye of his readers in how large a proportion of his pages he is indebted to the labours of his predecessors. Thus, on the structure of the liver, he very compendiously sets to work by quoting about half a dozen pages from Dr. Saunders's publication; and in treating on the use of this organ, he does little more than transcribe from that author, from Rush, and from others who have entered into these speculations.

Mr. W.'s arrangement of the diseases of the liver is, however, certainly original, and we shall give it in his own words:

'Hepatitis, or Sthenic Inflammation. Hepatitis Chronicus. Synochus Biliosa. Cholera Morbus. Periodical Cholera. Remarks on the indiscriminate use of Purgatives. Torpor, or Paralysis. Schirrous. Biliary Calculi.'

Our readers will probably be not less surprized than we were with the novelty of the 6th of these diseases; and, indeed, we are at a total loss to know to what genus in nosology we are to refer 'remarks on the indiscriminate use of Purgatives.' The word *schirrous*, as used substantively, we apprehend must be considered as an error of

the press; though it is repeated in the same form, and is not mentioned among the *errata*. We rather wondered at not finding jaundice in a list which purported to contain all the diseases of the liver: but the author informs us that he did not include it, because he regards it always as a symptomatic affection. The correctness of this opinion may, we think, be justly called in question: but, without entering farther into the discussion, we would ask Mr. White whether there are not many cases in which jaundice is the direct subject of medical treatment? This, we think, is a much more valid reason for including it among the diseases of the liver, than any conjecture respecting its symptomatic nature can form for omitting it. Before we leave this topic, we must notice one of the occasional causes of this disease that is pointed out; 'calculi in the parenchema (parenchyma) of the liver.' This is another specimen of Mr. White's originality.

We shall not follow the author through his observations on the two kinds of hepatitis; nor in his 'remarks on the term inflammation, and also on the remote and proximate cause of this disease,' since we find nothing that deserves our attention, and much that is commonplace and uninteresting. We therefore pass on to the *Synochus biliosa*: but Mr. White's account of this complaint, as we have before stated, is to be regarded as little more than a re-publication of his former work on the same subject; which, indeed, he very candidly avows. Notwithstanding that he must have had ample time for the correction of his first ideas on this point; his account of the disease still appears to us so extremely confused, that we are absolutely unable to form a distinct conception of what it is that he proposes to designate by it. According to his description, it assumes every variety of morbid action to which the human frame is liable. Sometimes it is disguised under the form of dyspepsia, and at other times under that of rheumatism; sometimes it resembles palsy; and at others it produces suppurations in the larger joints, hæmorrhages from the lungs, stomach, and intestines, or suppression of urine. Then we are told, in one place, that it is 'a distinct genus of fever;' we are afterward informed that it differs only in degree from cholera; and a third opinion given respecting it is that it 'is only a diminutive species of the bilious, or yellow fever, which occurs in hot climates.' The reader, we trust, will excuse us, if we do not consume his time in examining what the author says respecting the treatment of so indefinite and incomprehensible a disease.

The small part of this work which professes to be original is defective in correctness of expression, and in accuracy of arrangement; exhibiting a total want of that lucid order without which observations, even although faithfully recorded, present only a rude heap of uninteresting facts.

NOVELS.

Art. 18. *Sketches of Character*, or Specimens of real Life. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This Novel contains so many heroines and so little plot, that, as a story, it cannot excite much interest; and we do not think that the want

want of the usual succession of adventures and misfortunes is compensated by the number of plebeian personages, who are introduced to enliven the work. These characters are, however, more naturally drawn than those in higher life, whose conversation is often too unpolished to be appropriate, though we fear that it is at other times but too characteristic. We were amused with Lady Ancherly's method of manœuvring with her husband, in order to atchieve her little projects; and with the description of a boarding-house dinner-party, which is written with truth and humour: but we must object that we did not find a sufficient distinction made throughout between *virtue* and *vice*: no moral is inculcated by the disgrace of the frivolous and fashionable set who trifle their lives away in vanities; and those characters, which are intended to rise superior to them, have scarcely any distinguishing points which can mark their pre-eminence.

Art. 9. *Les Querelles de Famille. Par Auguste la Fontaine Traduite de l'Allemand.* 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. Reprinted in London for Colburn. 1809. Price 12s. sewed.

We were pleased to meet with another novel from the prolific pen of Augustus la Fontaine; an author who has the talent of interesting us in all the adventures and even in most of the little details which he introduces, and with whose hero the reader goes side by side, as a friend, to the end of the story. The present is a picture of domestic life, painted with more sober colouring than is generally adopted by the German novelists: the dialogue is natural; and the *naiveté* of youth is well represented. These authors have, however, the same fondness for minutiæ which debases the works of the Flemish painter; and in *les Querelles de Famille* this fault is often visible. When *Hermann* pays a visit to his rival, he does not suffer his friend to remain ignorant as to what coat he put on, but writes thus; '*Que je suis enfant! J'ai revêtu ma superbe uniforme*;' and when he is in despair on losing his mistress, and relates his narrow escape from falling down a precipice, he makes his regret at the preservation of his life almost ridiculous by a repetition of this exclamation, '*Ah! pourquoi cette intervalle de deux pouces!*'—We lament the more this burlesque descent to trifles beneath attention, because, when it does not occur, we meet with passages of real feeling and touching expression. The *denouement* of this tale is rather forced, and the actions of the personages are by no means consistent with their characters. That of *Minette* is noble, but many of her proceedings are unworthy of her. She obtains the confidence of *Marie* by introducing herself as another person; and she learns the engagements of her lover by reading the letters which lie open on his bureau: then she plans an heroic sacrifice of her own peace to his happiness, and effects it by telling twenty falsehoods. Such actions as these, when committed without contrition, and related without censure, furnish a dangerous and dishonourable example to the youthful reader.—A fond father is also made to persist in marrying his child to a man whom he considers as unworthy of her; and the daughter, through a long courtship, though she despised the lover who was chosen for her, '*cacha soigneusement à son père combien il lui étoit désagréable*,' for no reason that we can discover, but that the novel might be terminated by a *Coup de Théatre*.

Art. 20. *Cælia in Search of a Husband.* By a Modern Antique. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1809.

'I would not *attempt* (says this writer,) to pourtray a *Cælebs*; neither *my* vanity, nor my own *experience* in *la belle passion* could draw such a portrait: I would rather use my pen to trace a *natural* character: I believe the cause of *morality* to be more faithfully served in offering a *possible* point for our emulation, than in any *ideal* perfections that fancy, however sublime, could imagine.' The whole of the novel before us is conducted on this principle. Cœlia, though displaying moral as well as personal charms of no ordinary occurrence, is not absolutely out of nature. She acts up to the principles of religion, without any of the modern cant; with a mind perfectly feminine, she is bold enough to let reason take the lead; and, in a world of levity, she sets an example which the young of her sex in the present day would do well to imitate. To ladies and gentlemen, this Modern Antique (as the lady calls herself, if a lady it be who is the author,) reads a very instructive lecture. All the fashionable absurdities of the day are neatly satirized; and the modern London-fine-world is here drawn with exactness, and exhibited, as it ought to be, not as an object of envy, but of disgust; for life in London is, indeed, *wasted*, not *used*. Yet it is the wish of all females, educated on the present plan, to shine in this atmosphere of folly, and to display their *nakedness* (a new term for dress) "at midnight dances and the public shew."

Cœlia is introduced to the circles of fashion only to despise them. Morality and religion are made her rules, not the *usage of society*, nor the custom of the world. She distinguishes between innocent and degrading conformity, and never suffers fashion to obliterate principle. She exhibits the effects of an education truly moral and sensible, in the course of a visit to her sister, Lady Townley; appears to great advantage when contrasted with the various characters which fill the splendid drawing-rooms at the west end of the town; and shews her good sense as well in the offers which she rejects, as in the choice which she ultimately adopts. Our *noblemen-coachmen*, and our *naked, pocketless, shoe-making** ladies may not be pleased with the ridicule which is here lavished on them: but they richly deserve it; and if our modern fashionables were not ashamed of being considered as *moral*, the exhibition in these pages would lead to some reformation. Cœlebs attempted too much by endeavouring to make our fine people as religious as nuns and friars; and perhaps the efforts of Cœlia to infuse into them a little common sense may equally be thrown away. Can a luxurious capital be reformed by sermons, poems, or novels?

POETRY.

Art. 21. *The Cruise;* a Poetical Sketch, in Eight Cantos. By a Naval Officer. 8vo. pp. 470. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

* Our country readers may require to be apprized, that it has lately become the *ton* for young ladies to be employed in making their own shoes.

Dr.

Dr. Kirkpatrick's *Sea Piece* *, and Falconer's *Shipwreck* †, have long enjoyed established reputation, (though the former is not now perhaps so much known as the latter,) for the harmony of their poetry, the interest of their descriptions, and their just picture of a nautical life in a trading ship. We suspect, however, that they were not known to the author of the volume before us; though, perhaps, if they had been, he would not therefore have been induced to suppress his own composition, since its delineations relate entirely to the *regime* of a British *ship of war*, and his reflections are directed to the state of the British navy, at the present day. His design, therefore, is different; and different, we must add, are his poetical claims: but while of these we cannot speak highly, the accuracy of his representations may challenge equal commendation, and the justice and liberality of his sentiments demand a similar tribute.

The preface states that this poem was composed, as a source of amusement, during the leisure which the writer derived from the painful necessity of staying on shore to recruit an exhausted constitution; and that he conceived that it might not only be amusing to the young heroes of the navy, but instructive as developing their duty on service, and animating as exhibiting the gallant deeds of others. He has therefore given a description of the routine of duty in a cruizing frigate, of the incidents which arise from the variations of weather, and of the events of warfare in chace and in combat; relating, as we understand, such transactions as he himself has witnessed, though he has disguised the names of persons, ships, &c. His notes, also, besides giving a very proper explanation of all technical terms, contain a number of suggestions and reflections that will interest the professional reader. To such readers, we recommend the whole work; and to all others, who, besides the concern which every Briton must feel in his "wooden walls," is disposed to *take a cruise* in a frigate, without encountering the hardships of salt junk, the dangers of shipwreck, or the fatal effects of hostile bullets.

In adverting to Lord Nelson's attack on Copenhagen, the writer depicts the horrors of that dreadful battle as so overwhelming, that the crew of one of our ships were for a moment daunted. The anecdote is curious, since we take it from this author as a fact, and we quote the passage, which will also exemplify his style:

> 'It was on this day's sanguinary fight,
> A Fifty ‡ of our's soon became a sight
> Indeed most dismal!—torn by heavier shot,
> While many a noble Tar found death his lot!
> The quarter-deck a scene at length display'd,
> In the most horrid form of death array'd,
> When the few who were yet from slaughter sav'd,
> Turn'd an imploring, speaking eye, and crav'd,—

* See Rev. Vol. ii. p. 257. † Rev. Vol. xxvii. p. 197.

'‡ A "Fifty-gun" ship is the smallest class of two-deckers brought into the line, although they are not properly line-of battle ships.'

But, mark me! not a word!!!—"some little mercy,
"That Heav'n for this must surely reimburse ye!"
'Thus to the Captain!—and the piteous look
His ev'ry nerve with agitation shook!—
But then it was his firmly fix'd resolve,
That let destructive fate howe'er involve
Himself, his ship,—and more—his gallant crew,
Still would he at his station'd post be true!!!—
'Whiz—again comes another murd'rous ball
Sweeping down some, unnerving even all!
This human nature cannot now withstand,—
They turn! when, hark!—the ardent chief command,
"Stand to your Guns, Men," in a voice of thunder,
"Stand, I say, Sailors, tho' you're cut asunder."!!!—
'Scarce was the energetic hero heard,
Than they attend! aye, dread! his angry word
Far more than Death's uplifted vengeful stroke;
No more aghast!—the spell of Terror's broke,—
Again their deep-mouth'd guns with fury rattle,
And yet more deadly fierce! they urge the battle,
The more they're crush'd, the more they raise the cheer!
Banish'd is every sense of panic fear
At length the fruits of such brave toil they share,
For lo! the stubborn foe explodes in air!!!
The dread concussion, and the splinters, force
Our batter'd hulk, at last, to alter course;
Tho' ne'er before! altho' the rival ship
With heavier metal did her vitals rip.'

The *Clinton*, and the *Isis*, were the only fifty-gun ships in Lord Nelson's squadron, that were engaged in this affair; and we suspect that in one of them our naval poet was stationed, probably the *Isis*, the loss of men in which vessel best corresponds with the above description

Art. 22. *Naval Triumph*; or, Nelson's last Wreath, a Poem. By W. D. Matthews. 12mo 2s. Faulder. 1805.

We were more interested in the subject than delighted with the execution of this poem. Mr. Matthews is welcome to add another wreath to those which already encircle the monument of Lord Nelson: but he must not displace a single stone, to make room for either flowers or weeds.

'*The sad muse devotes*' an episode '*to hapless Love*,' and we do not object to her following her fancy in this particular: but when the author calls on '*Celestial Truth*' to '*rouse the lofty strains*,' he should neither alter nor add to the information which he receives from her. He, however, makes 'the Foe confederate' steal away in the night, for the mere pleasure, as it should seem, of hearing '*Ocean growl once more beneath the prow*,' while *he* sends the British fleet in chace of them. He also mistakes in calling Captain (afterward Admiral) Hervey a Baronet.—In short, though Mr. Matthews seems to cherish a reverence for his hero, and an enthusiasm for his theme, in which we perfectly

coincide, yet 'Celestial Truth' obliges *us* to acknowlege that his feelings as a Patriot are very superior to his conceptions as a Poet.

Art. 23. *The Senses*. An Ode; in the Manner of Collins's Ode on the Passions. 4to. 4s. Ridgway.

We have here a sort of *parody* on Collins's Ode on the Passions, with which it has more imitative analogy than the author seems willing to allow. It is certainly a disadvantage to any poem to be so far modelled on another of acknowleged superiority, as to remind the reader every moment of the charms of its rival:—but, as this misfortune is voluntarily incurred, its consequences must be unrepiningly endured. The ode before us, however, has merit enough to please, notwithstanding the comparison to which it lies open. It is written with taste and spirit; though we observe a confusion of qualifications in some of the figures, as when we read that

'HEARING *poured her tuneful tongue*,'

and that 'Jealousy *bade enlivening* HOPE *despair!!*'

Art. 24. *Sonnets of the 18th Century*, and other small Poems. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Kearsley. 1809.

It appears that these sonnets were written in the 18th, and published in the 19th century; by which means it is ingeniously contrived that two centuries shall have witnessed their existence: but as for the *third*, we fear that it has little chance of receiving them among the literary legacies of its predecessor. Their style is in general harsh and inflated, and their subjects are trite: but we find one, on '*Cold*,' which is picturesque and descriptive; and another, on the 'Revels' of children, which is pleasing and simple.

Art. 25. *Short Pieces in Verse*. By Clericus. 12mo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

Since this collection of verses is published for the benefit of a Lunatic Asylum in the city of Lincoln, we are unwilling to check its success by too severe a scrutiny of its poetic merits; particularly as the chief purpose of its publication may be fulfilled by the *purchase* without our insisting on the *perusal* of it.

Art. 26. *Ronald*, a Legendary Tale; with other Poems. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Hookham, jun. 1809.

In these tales, we have evidently the effusions of a *School-boy, in love*: but, as he appears to be a lad of some feeling, we rejoice that he has suppressed his name, and that his future respectability and comfort are not dependant on the success of this juvenile performance.

Art. 27. *Miscellaneous Poetry*; by Thomas Green, jun. of Liverpool. 12mo. 4s. Longman and Co.

This is in general a poetical catalogue of the author's good deeds, interspersed with a few stanzas on his hopes and fears, to which are added his angry 'Thoughts at meeting with a cool reception, in a friend's house.'—The good action, which forms the subject of the first poem, was that Mr. Green gave a dinner to a beggar, and, on hearing his story, invited the said beggar to live with him.—Another

of his exploits was rushing out in the dark, in defiance of his wife's entreaties, to save the life of a ship-wrecked boy; and in another poem, equally long, he describes the assistance which he and his companions afforded at sea to the crew of a sinking vessel: though, in this instance, all that we learn of Mr. Green's magnanimity is his joining in the cry of 'Huzza' when he saw them safe.

This volume may for obvious reasons prove interesting to the writer's father, to whom it is dedicated: but we have not the same curiosity for private biography which is conspicuous in the author, who makes both his beggar and his ship-wrecked boy repay their entertainment by a narration of their lives. The tale of 'Don Ferdinand,' from Shenstone's Essays, is among the best of these compositions: but altogether we cannot promise our readers much of either pleasure or profit from a perusal of this collection.

Art. 28. *Poems*, by Miss S. Evance. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Although in some of these poems the verse is not smooth enough to convey all the beauty of the ideas, yet many of them display a purity of sentiment and a delicacy of feeling which intitle them to a considerable portion of our approbation. Miss Evance is not, however, always happy in her comparisons; she talks of a *butterfly* '*playful as the waving trees*;' and she sometimes writes in a tone of querulous despair which we hope was not so much a habit of the mind as a transient affection, vanishing with 'the clouds,' the 'dew-drops,' and 'the waves,' that occasioned the lines in which this mournful spirit predominates. When fictitious wretchedness gives way to more rational considerations, she pleases by her power of imagery, her justness of reflection, and her elegance of thought.

EDUCATION.

Art. 29. *Tales of the Hermitage*, in English and Italian, translated by V. Peretti. 2d Edition. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Dulau, & Co. 1809.

Signor Peretti has already distinguished himself by the publication of a very useful Italian grammar; and this translation of some Tales, written by an English lady, will be a valuable present to youthful students of the Italian language. The nature of the Tales, which are intended merely for the amusement of children, will probably prevent them from circulating beyond the school room: but a perusal of them might be more extensively advantageous in teaching the pronunciation of Italian. In the preface, several plain and important rules for placing the accents are laid down, while every word throughout the Tales is accented so as to indicate the pronunciation which it requires: the English and Italian are printed opposite to each other; and the corresponding paragraphs are judiciously *numbered*, to prevent any difficulty to the most ignorant, in tracing their affinity.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *A Series of Mercantile Letters*, intended to give a general Knowlege of Business to those young Persons whose Views are directed

directed to Commerce, and for the Use of Schools. By E. Hodgkins. Small 8vo. pp 241. 4s. Boosey.

This work is introduced by an Essay on Exchanges, containing tables of the monies of different countries; which is followed by a short description of foreign weights and measures, shewing their proportion to the weights and measures of England, and by an alphabetical list of technical mercantile expressions. After these preliminary notices, we come to the *Letters*, which are selections from real correspondence, and are chosen so as to present a great variety of mercantile communications. One letter contains a list of prices, another a note of exchanges, a third an invoice, a fourth an account-sale, &c. No doubt will remain on the part of those who read this little volume, that it has been carefully and judiciously executed: but a general disposition prevails on the part of mercantile men to distrust, *in toto*, the efficacy of any other instruction in trade than that which is acquired by practice. This feeling proceeds from a confined view of the subject. No instruction, we allow, can supersede the necessity of practice, but the attainments of practice are exceedingly accelerated by the collateral assistance of study. The man who, on going abroad, determines to confine himself, in learning a foreign language, to the benefit which is derived from actual conversation with the natives, will find his progress much slower than if, in addition to conversation, he had called in the aid of a grammar and dictionary. The progress of a youth in a Counting-house is generally very slow. He is employed, during several years, in doing little else than carrying messages and copying letters; it rarely happens that he has the benefit of an instructor; he is left to collect and digest information in the best way that he can devise; and he would often run the hazard of being ridiculed, were he to seek that information in books. The consequence of this very defective mode of education, joined to the frequent want of superintendance out of doors, is that, of the youth introduced into Counting-houses, a considerable proportion become tired of their situations, and abandon them; while of those who remain, many continue so ignorant as to be unfit for employments of trust or difficulty. We cannot, however, enter into the wide field of discussion which the subject of mercantile education would suggest; and we shall only farther remark that, among the means of amending it, we are disposed to lay considerable stress on plain and well-digested books on commercial topics.

Art. 31. *The Cottagers of Glenburnie*; a Tale for the Farmer's Ingle-Nook. By Elizabeth Hamilton. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The second title of this tale almost serves to announce the great mixture of Scotch dialect which it contains; enough is however intelligible to gratify every reader of taste, and every lover of humour; and perhaps few writers, without "overstepping the modesty of nature," can produce scenes and situations equally comic, or, without departing from the airiness of narration, administer counsel equally weighty. We the less regret that our limits do not permit us to make

make extracts from this work, because we rather wish to induce than to supersede the perusal of it; and we are convinced that no extracts can afford so much pleasure as the whole tale will inevitably yield.

Art. 32. *Letters of the Swedish Court*, written chiefly in the early Part of the Reign of Gustavus III. To which is added an Appendix, containing an Account of the Assassination of that Monarch, with some interesting Anecdotes of the Court of St. Petersburg. 12mo. pp. 282. 6s. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1809.

Several facts, derived from the private and public history of the court of Stockholm during the early part of the reign of Gustavus III., are here related in letters, supposed to be written by the persons themselves who were principally interested in them. The main subject is the temporary coolness between Gustavus and his royal consort, soon after their marriage, with the means by which a reconciliation was effected. We are assured, in the preface, that not a circumstance is stated which is not sanctioned by the history of the times. This may be true; and the facts may be as honourable to the memory of the King and Queen of Sweden, as the author believes them to be: but the dress, in which he has made them appear before us, certainly does not contribute to excite our admiration for nor to interest our feelings in behalf of the principal characters. All the letters are very indifferently composed; and they do not even express the characteristic distinction of their supposed authors. Those of the King and the Queen are, however, the worst; and some of them are entirely in the style of the commonest novel which is issued from the manufactory in Leadenhall street. A couple of very short extracts will fully satisfy our readers, and exhibit the talents of the writer for describing interesting scenes and delineating great characters. Count Scheffer gives the following picture of the effect which the first discovery of the Queen's real attachment to the King, and of the injustice of all suspicions entertained against her, produced on the Monarch.

'Eagerly perusing the letter, I observed his eyes brighten and a glowing colour mount into his face; he seemed to proceed with a sort of breathless impatience. By a sudden motion he upset the small table with the chessboard, and king, queen, knights, bishops and pawns came rattling about our heels. Amazed at the noise and unconscious of the cause, the King looked for a moment angry—seeming to mistrust his eyes; he caught up one of the candles, extinguished it by his quick motion; and, complaining there were no lights in the room, was proceeding to the next apartment.' p. 112.

Soon afterward, His Majesty himself is made to write to his Queen from Finland, whither the most important concerns of the state had called him:

'Nothing but imperious duty should detain me; smarting under this uncertain absence, I am ready to abjure the motives, right as I thought them, which have brought me so far from my capital. Impetuous

petuous fool! to forget that for this absence you might have long remained ignorant of the sentiments of her you adore. Most gladly would I instantly fly, myself the second courier, to announce to my Magdalena the joy and health of her devoted. A tolerable article it would make in future chronicles — "His Majesty, after some years of coldness and inattention to his fair Queen (wretch that I am!), immedi tely on completing his voyage into Finland, on the most important affairs, returned with the speed of a courier, to throw himself at Her Majesty's feet, receive her forgiveness, and to return with the same speed to the completion of the important matters scarcely commenced.' — p. 136.

The appendix contains, besides a very insignificant account of the assassination of Gustavus III., an anecdote of his son, the late unfortunate King; which the author assures his readers he obtained from private and authentic sources. — When the King visited Petersburgh in the year 1796, with his uncle, who was at that time Regent of Sweden, and a marriage between him and one of the grand Duchesses of Russia had been settled, the day and hour were fixed on which they were to be publicly betrothed; the whole court was assembled; and the Empress appeared in all imaginable pomp, attended by the young princess, habited as a bride to receive the King. No King however arrived. On examining the articles of alliance, which were privately laid before him for signature by the ministers of the Empress, at the moment when he intended to go to court, he discovered that they contained engagements, on which he had not previously agreed with the Empress; and in consequence he refused to sign them, notwithstanding the urgent persuasions of his uncle, and all the Swedes of his suite.

Art. 33. *Letter to the Earl of Kellie*, concerning the Farmer's Income-Tax: with a Hint on the Principle of Representation, &c. 8vo pp. 63. 2s. Wilson.

A very singular composition is here presented to us, by a Mr. Robert Gourlay, a landholder in the county of Fife, on the occasion of an affront, or supposed affront, received from Lord Kellie. The author says very little on the professed subject, the income tax, but a great deal on his own political tenets, to which he appears to attach no slight degree of consequence. We regret that it is out of our power to rate them so favourably; since, although he appears to possess feelings of liberality in several respects, he acquits himself most unfortunately as an instructor of the public. Declamation and rash assertions pervade the whole of his pamphlet.

Art. 34. *Naufragia*, or Historical Memoirs of Shipwrecks, and of the Providential Deliverance of Vessels. By James Stanier Clarke, F. R. S. Chaplain of the Prince's Household, and Librarian to His R. H. 12mo. 2 Vols. 13s. Boards. Mawman.

Not only does this publication furnish a series of relations which will interest the sons of Neptune, incite them to bear the hardships of his reign, and furnish them with hints for expedients in misfortune, but it will amuse the general reader, by the nature and variety of its contents.

In

In the section relative to Alexander Selkirk, and the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, Mr. Clarke seems to incline to an opinion which has been started, that Daniel Defoe was not in fact the author of that popular book; and he quotes, from the Gentleman's Magazine, Vol. lviii. Pt. i. p. 208, a letter to Mr. Urban on the subject, which we are also inclined to transcribe.

"Mr Urban, "Dublin, Feb. 25, 1788.

"In the course of a late conversation with a nobleman of the first consequence and information in this kingdom, he assured me that Mr Benjamin Holloway, of Middleton Stony, assured him, some time ago, that he knew for fact, that the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe was really written by the Earl of Oxford, when confined in the Tower of London; that his Lordship gave the manuscript to Daniel Defoe, who frequently visited him during his confinement; and that Defoe, having afterwards added the second volume, published the whole as his own production. This anecdote I would not venture to send to your valuable Magazine, if I did not think my information good, and imagine it might be acceptable to your numerous readers; notwithstanding the work has heretofore been generally attributed to the latter." "W. W."

The inquiry is not, perhaps, of much consequence, unless it were also contended that Lord Oxford did not take the real adventures of Selkirk as the basis of his narrative; yet we should be glad to have the question decided, as a piece of literary history.

Art. 35. *Variety*, or Selections and Essays, consisting of Anecdotes, curious Facts, interesting Narratives, with occasional Reflections. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1809.

These Essays seem in every respect calculated to fulfil the intention of the compiler, by instructing without wearying, and amusing without weakening the minds of her young readers; and we can safely recommend 'Variety' as a very judicious and entertaining little work.

Art. 36. *Primitiæ*, or Essays and Poems on various Subjects, religious, moral, and entertaining. By Connop Thirlwall, *Eleven Years of Age*. The Preface by his Father, the Rev. Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. &c. &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Printed for the Author.

It cannot be denied that these compositions are extraordinary when we consider the extreme youth of the author: but we have never met with any lucubrations of a writer of nine years old, which we should not willingly have resigned till he had doubled his age, and was able to obey the wise though neglected precept of the poet, by revising his work at the end of that period. The difference between nine and eleven, in favor of Master Thirlwall, would not induce us to alter this remark: yet he has excited in us more surprize than most of his young literary contemporaries. We were pleased also to see his attention and talents directed to subjects of moral improvement and of religious instruction; and we remarked in his poetry an acuteness of observation, with an occasional felicity of expression, which made us augur well of his future productions.

We

We observe some contradictions in the essays, and some metrical defects in the poetry, which may be explained by the assertion of the writer's father, that 'his compositions cost him little effort, and that he seldom corrects a sentence after it is once committed to paper.' His compositions have indeed less the appearance of precocious efforts than of spontaneous effusions from a fertile mind: but to publish without correction is generally a proof of arrogance or of indolence: and we would repeat to every hasty poet the maxim of Rousseau, "*Le seul moyen de faire des vers faciles, c'est de les faire difficilement.*" Mr. Thirlwall, senior, should not have made this avowal for his son, because he ought to have prevented the fact, by inculcating the impropriety of it.

Art. 37. *The Letters of a Peruvian Princess*, by Madame de Grafigny; also, as a Sequel, the Letters of Aza, by Ignatius Hungari de la Marche Courmont: to which are prefixed a Life of Madame de Grafigny, and a short biographical Notice of Marche Courmont. Translated from the French by William Mudford. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1809.

The Peruvian letters of Madame de Grafigny have long been admired for their elegance, and loved for the *naiveté* and sensibility which they exhibit; and they have already been translated into English more than once, though not in a manner which did justice to the original. Mr. Mudford has succeeded better than his predecessors: but he has perhaps been too literal in his copy; by preserving the French arrangement of the words, his sentences, though not absolutely distorted, are frequently stiff and ungraceful; and we are thus perpetually reminded that we are reading a translation. This servile adherence to the language as well as the sentiments of his model has led him into the mistake of making Zilia address her lover by the pronouns *thou* and *you* in the same paragraph: an anomaly which is used by the best French authors to denote an increased familiarity, or a heightened feeling, but which in English is both ungrammatical and unexpressive.

The letters of Aza, by La Marche Courmont, are by no means equal in style and sentiment to those which precede them; and Mr. Mudford appears to have been fully aware of their inferiority, as well as of the difficulties which they presented to a translator by their affectation and extravagance. This knowlege has not, however, aided him to overcome nor induced him to soften the faults of the original; and, at the end of his translation, he 'rejoices at the termination of his labour,' without the least contrition for having led his readers through the same labyrinth of absurdity by which he has been wearied.

The biographical sketch of Madame de Grafigny is interesting and well written; and the 'Historical Introduction' affords many explanations which are useful in elucidating the letters. We find also a characteristic description of the Peruvians, and of the causes which induced their superstitious submission to Spanish tyranny.

Art. 38. *The Traveller's Guide;* or English Itinerary: containing accurate and original Descriptions of all the Counties, Cities, Towns, Villages, Hamlets, &c. and their exact Distances from London:

together with the Cathedrals, Churches, Hospitals, Gentlemen's Seats, (with the Names of their present Possessors,) Manufactures, Harbours, Bays, Rivers, Canals, Bridges, Lakes, Salt and Medicinal Springs, Vales, Hills, Mountains, Mines, Castles, Curiosities, Market Days, Fairs, Inns for Post-Horses, &c. The whole comprising a complete Topography of England and Wales. To which are prefixed general Observations on Great Britain; including a correct Itinerary from London to the several Watering and Sea-Bathing Places; Lists of Inns in London; Mail Coaches; Wharfs; Packet Boats; Rates of Porterage; Postage of Letters; and every other useful Information, equally calculated for the Man of Business and the inquisitive Traveller. By W. C. Oulton, Esquire. Illustrated with 66 correct picturesque Views, and a whole Sheet coloured Map of England and Wales. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 800 and 900. Boards. 11. 5s. Cundee.

It is truly observed by Mr. Oulton, that the reader can scarcely have an adequate idea of the immense labour of such an undertaking as this; and we do not wonder that he adds that, soon after he had commenced it, he was on the point of relinquishing it in despair. He did, however, proceed; and he declared that he has consulted every requisite authority, and has taken all possible pains to insure the attainment of accuracy, which is so essential in a compilation of this kind. It is not within our power to examine the work thoroughly, and therefore we cannot speak definitively of its merits on this point, which can only be decided by a long-continued consultation of it; and, indeed, as Mr. O. admits, the fluctuating nature of many of its particulars must constantly expose it to the chance of varying from 'existing circumstances.' We can, however, assure the reader that a vast mass of information is here collected, both for library-use, and for the guidance of the traveller; and that the medallion engravings annexed are in general very pleasingly executed.

Art. 39. *Quid Nunc? Selections from the Poems of the late W. Cowper, Esquire;* contrasted with the Works of Knox, Paley, and others, on Fashion, Cards, Charity, Clergy, Priest, Pulpit, Duelling, Slander, Lying, Duplicity, Domestic Happiness, Vice, Seduction. 8vo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

By these extracts, the compiler intends to display a picture of the existing state of morals, or rather of immorality; and to suggest those wholesome lessons on the above recited topics, which must be generally reduced to practise before we can be denominated a virtuous people. When this event will take place, Mr. *Quid Nunc* cannot tell us: but in the mean time we shall be glad if his pamphlet has a share in effecting it.

Art. 40. *Facts and Experiments on the Use of Sugar in feeding Cattle:* with Hints for the Cultivation of Waste Lands, and for improving the Condition of the lower Order of the Peasantry in Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. pp. 121. Harding. 1809.

This anonymous writer begins by assuring his readers that he has no interest whatever in the West Indies, and that his object is to serve the great body of the nation by increasing the quantity of grain and lowering

lowering the price of butchers' meat. He lays it down as the result of his experiments, that one shilling's worth of sugar will save two shillings worth of hay; and consequently that, were the use of sugar understood, the quantity of young stock raised would, in many parts of the kingdom, be greater than it is at present. He asserts that 'the use of sugar is one of the greatest enemies in the world to disorders among cattle, and perhaps disease will hardly ever attack an animal so fed.' He is an advocate for stall-feeding, and recommends the following plan for the use of molasses or sugar in the stall:

'Put up twenty head of cattle in a comfortable house, and have a quantity of lyng or heath cut when in full bloom, and stacked, after being exposed three or four days to the sun and air. Separate from the strong and woody branches the part which can be chewed; carry the latter to a trough placed before the young cattle, and sprinkle it over with the molasses, or dissolved sugar. On this food they will thrive surprisingly, and come out in spring superior to the cattle fed on hay, and in many places at half the expence. Lyng can be had in many parts of the kingdom where hay is not to be found.'

Since half the usual quantity of hay will be found sufficient when sprinkled with molasses, the author advises the use of molasses for this purpose on board of all vessels in which cattle are embarked, when the voyage is long, and a stock of hay must be laid in. He recommends it likewise for the cavalry and commissariat departments; supporting his predilection for sugar by the argument that the nourishing quality of hay, clover, &c. consists in their saccharine properties; and that, if hay be made to undergo the process of boiling, the virtue will be found in the wash. He relates the case of an old horse, which had become a mere skeleton, and was in vain turned out to grass, or fed in the stable with hay and corn, but which, when molasses were mixed with his provender, in the course of six weeks was completely recovered.—The cow keepers form another of the classes to whom the author strongly urges the use of sugar or molasses, as conducive both to the increase of the quantity and the improvement of the quality of milk.

The next subject of discussion is the application of sugar or molasses to the food of sheep. The writer proposes that in land on which coarse grass is produced, such as sheep will not eat if left to themselves, a quantity of molasses, diluted in water, should be sprinkled over the grass with a common watering-pot, and the sheep be then driven to the spot: from which, he is of opinion, they will not stir till they have eaten this hitherto neglected grass down to the root.

The pamphlet is concluded by an appendix containing a correspondence between Mr. E. T. Waters and the Board of Agriculture, in which the use of sugar is pronounced to be very advantageous. The danger of which the author is most apprehensive is that of giving too much at first; the cattle being apt to eat food, so prepared, in quantities which the richness of the sugar might render dangerous.

From the variety and minuteness of his agricultural comments, it is apparent that this author is not a merchant, but a farmer. The circumstances which we have mentioned form only a part of those to which he urges that the use of sugar is applicable; and we do not recollect to have met with a more zealous advocate, in the course of our critical

critical labours. We are disposed to coincide with a great part of his opinions, and to believe that sugar may be used for cattle with eminent success: but we cannot avoid remarking that the number of proselytes, in a cause like this, is not likely to be augmented by the vehemence of the writer. A concise and well digested set of rules, supported by examples, would be the mode best adapted, to our farmers, and would guide them gradually to that state of improvement of which our agriculture stands greatly in need in regard to fattening cattle, as well as in many other respects.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot, without violating a rule which we make invariable, insert in this place the note of *J. N.* of the City Road: but, if we take notice of the work to which it refers, we may perhaps see the propriety of stating the simple fact of which he assures us.

Inquisitor is informed that we have not neglected the valuable history of the amiable Fenelon, to the commencement of our account of which he refers: since he will find, in the Appendices to our 58th and 59th volumes, which it is evident he has not seen, the concluding articles which complete 'this (as he expresses himself) pleasing and instructive abstract.' We must indeed ever regard the life of this eminent prelate as an entertaining and improving study: and to those who cannot procure the book in question, which we believe is scarce in this country, we can venture to point out the analysis of it which we have given as not unworthy of their perusal

*** The repeated and long existing complaints made by the readers of the M. R., especially those who reside in the country, of the inattention of their booksellers in not forwarding to them each *appendix*, when it appears, induce us once more to state that these supplementary numbers are published constantly on the 1st of February with the number for January, on the 1st of June with the number for May, and on the 1st of October with the number for September, in each year. It is essential to the completeness of their sets, that our friends should regularly obtain these Appendices: but, independently of this consideration, if they are not procured, the reader is deprived of much interesting and instructive matter, which is here drawn from a variety of continental publications; and which, especially in these times, it is very difficult and expensive for us to provide. We partake, therefore, in the disappointment expressed by a number of Correspondents, when we find that our labour has been non-effective with regard to them; and we request that they will furnish us with a specification of the channel, in town and in country, through which they are usually supplied with the M. R., that we may discover where the fault originates in these instances.

☞ In the last Appendix, P. 473, l. 9. for 'illusion,' r. *allusion*.—P. 525. l. 30. for 'was,' r. *were*.

In the Rev. for September, P. 41. l. 26. dele the comma after '*fault*.'—P. 60. l. 10. from bott. insert a comma after '*nations*.'—P. 65. l. 17. insert a comma after '*us*.'—P. 104. l. 17. from bott. for, 'The,' r. *These*.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1809.

ART. I. *Characters of the late Charles James Fox*, selected and in part written, by Philopatris Varvicensis. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. Boards. Mawman, 1809.

GENERAL report and internal evidence equally concur in assigning to the pen of the Reverend Dr. Parr the volumes before us; and the public will therefore be prepared to hear that they form a valuable memorial of the illustrious man to whose fame they are consecrated, while they reflect high honour on the learning and the eloquence, the principles and the feelings, of the distinguished scholar by whom they are compiled. The work appears to be designed as a letter to Mr. Coke of Norfolk; who will probably always consider it as his noblest praise to have deserved the title here conferred on him, of 'the personal and political friend of the late Charles James Fox.' By some admirers of our departed statesman, we learn, it was thought that a collection of the best written characters which had been drawn of him soon after his death would not be unacceptable to the public; and accordingly the newspapers of the day, which, in announcing his dissolution, preserved some record of the events of his life, together with a sketch of the features of his mind, have been laid under contribution for nearly twenty articles on this interesting subject. We confess that we have been more entertained by them than we could have expected; and we regard them as honourable to the talents, and, with little exception, to the candour and the feelings of the several writers. Though the rapid demands of a diurnal press exclude the possibility of finished composition, and give a certain toleration to *verbiage*, we here seldom encounter affectation, while inaccuracy is still more rare; and though a variety of political opinions appears among these characters, (which are selected with perfect impartiality,) we remark an extraordinary abstinence from every thing offensive and illiberal,—if we exclude the unfortunate specimen of provincial ignorance and vulgarity, which occurs at the fortieth page.

The extracts from newspapers are followed by similar essays more carefully composed, and inserted in Reviews, Magazines, and even in separate pamphlets, poems, and sermons. They possess various degrees of merit: but the most useful among them, both as a summary of facts and a view of Mr. Fox's character, is drawn from the Universal Magazine for March and April 1805, the year preceding his death. The discourse of Mr. Belsham is full of animation and discernment; and that of Dr. Symmons will hardly be perused without exciting strong sympathy with the warm and elevated sensibility of the preacher. A masterly *éloge* is ascribed to Sir James Mackintosh; who appears, however, to the Editor to have adopted from Mr. Burke too low a tone of praise, when he designates Mr. Fox as having "become, by slow degrees, the most brilliant and accomplished *debater* the world ever saw." It is here shewn, very much at large, that he deserved a more exalted title; and while that which he actually receives is proved to be both invidious and inappropriate, we think that the epithets of *indefinite* and *unmeaning* might have been affixed to it with equal justice. We may compare him as an *orator* with the great men of antiquity, whose orations have descended to us: but of their brilliancy, their skill, their promptitude, their accomplishments, as *debaters*, we have no materials that enable us to form an opinion.

After these selected characters, the first volume is closed by a very elaborate picture drawn by the editor himself; which unites, to the ample homage of enthusiastic admiration, great diligence in weighing, and much judgment in duly appreciating, the qualities of the friend whom it deplores. Not only 'his attainments as a scholar, his powers as a public speaker, and his merits as a statesman,' are displayed in broad daylight, but his temper and conversation, his private pursuits, and his social habits, assume their share in the attractive and finely-coloured portrait. Let us, however, frankly acknowlege that we experience some disappointment with respect to details, which the intimacy of Dr. Parr with his hero might surely have furnished: too much is said in general terms, and too little reference is made to actual occurrences; or, to pursue our former metaphor, we are dazzled with the glare of rich colouring, instead of being delighted with the more difficult excellence of faithful drawing. Anecdotes of Mr. Fox's conversation, like those that have been reported of Dr. Johnson, full of pointed and ambitious phrases, he had too correct and too gentlemanly a taste frequently to supply: but some more distinct idea might easily have been conveyed of his prevailing style in society; and his letters would have been most eagerly perused

by

by thousands of his countrymen, who, though his name, his political conduct, and his parliamentary speeches, are "familiar in their mouths as household words," have still much to learn respecting the ordinary intercourse of his life with those who were honoured by his friendship.

The exordium of this panegyric will qualify our readers to form a fair opinion of its style, as well as a compendious notion of its entire contents:

'I have long been anxious to convey to you my condolence on the death of our inestimable friend Mr. Fox. But I have been hitherto restrained by the dread of appearing to you obtrusive, in the fresh hour of your affliction; and by a consciousness of my own inability to administer much to your comfort. Such is the wise constitution of our nature, that in certain situations, and for a certain time, it is better for us to follow the instinctive impulses of our feelings, than to wait for the slow and calm direction of our reason. Grief under such circumstances is impatient of the slightest interruption to that series of ideas which is most congenial to itself; and we then reject the very same topics of consolation which we afterwards cherish and approve, when they occur to us spontaneously, or when flowing from those around us, they fall in with other trains of thinking which time has silently introduced into our bosoms.

'Well knowing the poignant anguish occasioned by the loss of those whom we have been accustomed to regard with affection, I cannot but take a most lively share in your distress, heightened, as I am aware it must be, by the continual privation of the delight you formerly experienced, in the conversation of a chearful, sagacious, and most faithful friend. Pardon me, however, for expressing my hope that you are beginning to find some consolation, as I do, in reflecting upon the numerous and matchless excellencies of one whom England ought to consider as its best guardian, and the world as its most noble ornament. If the sublimity of his genius, the depth and variety of his knowledge, the solidity of his judgment, the gentleness of his private and the moderation of his public conduct, offer themselves to your mind, the sense you entertain of all his amiable and all his venerable qualities, accompanied perhaps by transient and involuntary illusions of his momentary presence among us, may suspend or mitigate your sorrow.

'The pleasure I have myself had, though sometimes alloyed by melancholy, in looking back upon the many hours which I have passed in Mr. Fox's company, naturally leads me to consider your lot as highly fortunate, in having for so many years diligently cultivated, and uninterruptedly enjoyed the confidence of so valuable a man, and in the many endearing recollections which your long and unreserved habits of intimacy with him cannot fail to supply. If you had been called upon to select a friend from the whole human race, where could you have found one endowed as he was with the guileless playfulness of a child, and the most correct and comprehensive knowledge of the world; or distinguished, as he was, by an elegant taste in the dead and living languages, by a thorough acquaintance with the most

important events of past and present times, by a profound skill in the history, and by a well-founded and well-directed reverence for the constitution of his country, and by the keenest penetration into all the nearer and all the remoter consequences of public measures? Where could you have found a statesman so qualified by the impartiality of his spirit, and the extent of his views, to fix upon right measures for the accomplishment of right ends: to separate appearances from realities in the political horizon: to reason down local and temporary prejudices into subjection to the eternal laws of justice, and to infuse confidence into the minds of enlightened foreigners, with whom he was officially to discuss the intricate and jarring claims of powerful and jealous nations? Where could you have found an orator gifted with properties of eloquence so many and so great, always exciting attention by his ardour and rewarding it by his good sense—always adapting his matter to the subject, and his diction to the matter—never misrepresenting where he undertook only to confute, nor insulting because he had vanquished—instructive without a wish to deceive, and persuasive without an attempt to domineer—manfully disdaining to seize the incidental and subordinate advantages of controversy, and inflexibly intent upon developing the substantial and specific merits of the cause in which he was engaged—eager for victory only as the prize of truth, holding up the most abstruse and uncommon principles in the most glowing colours, and dignifying the most common by new combinations—at one moment incorporating wit with argument, and at the next ascending from historical details to philosophical generalization—irresistible from effort, captivating without it, and by turns concise and copious, easy and energetic, familiar and sublime."

In the course of this treatise, Dr. Parr animadverts, we think with just severity, on the harsh and unfeeling conduct of Mr. Burke towards one whom he described as "a man born to be loved." His treacherous accusations of the honour of such a man, clandestinely conveyed to the friends of both in the first instance, and afterward avowed in the face of the public, will ever be remembered to his shame. On the subject of the violent attack directed by him against the Duke of Bedford, in which the grand principles, to the defence of which he had been eager to sacrifice Mr. Fox's friendship, were in their turn sacrificed to the bitterness of personal animosity, Dr. Parr hesitates (Vol. I. p. 284.) to concur entirely with the sentiments expressed in the Monthly Review*, while he applauds the composition of the critique in terms the most flattering. His praise we estimate highly: but he will permit us still to maintain the opinion there avowed in language which appears to us defensible in its fullest extent. At this distance of time, however, and on a subject that has

* See the Monthly Review for March 1796, p. 314. (misquoted by Dr. Parr, in Vol. ii. p. 564. as the Number for *May*.)

passed

passed away, it would hardly be fair to our readers in general, to enter into a long discussion with one from whom we have seldom occasion to dissent; and who, after having served the cause of *political truth* in his censure of Mr. Burke's public conduct, has fought the battle of *literary truth* in his bold strictures on a style of all others the most easy of imitation, and the most dangerous as a model.

The topic introduced at p. 219, and treated at some length in that and the following pages, appears to us unnecessary to the work, and therefore in our opinion would better have been omitted. We are the more surprized at these paragraphs, when we compare them with the note in which great pains are employed to rescue Mr. Fox from the charge of expressing any religious doubts in his History. We perfectly agree with the author in condemning all officious 'scrutiny into the origin and extent of speculative scruples, which the persons, who unhappily and it may be unavoidably experience them, are too discreet to proclaim, and too decorous to disseminate.' All that can be collected, from the vague statement before us, is that Mr. Fox entertained some theological doubts: but that of their nature and extent his modesty, his discretion, his distrust of his own judgement, and his deference for the sincere conviction of others, left even his nearest friends in total ignorance. Perhaps, it would have been the duty of a friend, if he could not be perfectly explicit, to observe a total silence on the subject. It is humiliating to the pride of human intellect to acknowlege how powerful is the influence of accidental circumstances and uncontroulable associations, in swaying, and even in forming the decisions of the greatest minds on the most important subjects; and those who remember Lord Chesterfield's character of the first Lord Holland, as well as the early admission of Lord H.'s son to the society of men of rank on the continent, will scarcely deny that, in this respect, Mr. Fox was peculiarly unfortunate. Yet bigots on the one hand, and infidels on the other, will be ready to blacken his memory, or to rest on his authority, for opinions which were early and unconsciously adopted; and which were retained perhaps for no other reason than that, in the course of a most active life, he never found an opportunity of submitting them to the test of a severe investigation.

Dr. Parr's second volume is entirely occupied by notes, all containing more or less of instruction, but some of them demanding peculiar attention. That which is devoted to a consideration of the present state of our criminal code, (p. 321,) though from its length and importance it ought rather to have formed a distinct volume, is not less remarkable for the valu-

able original observations with which it abounds, than for a judicious resort to the best authorities in support of its positions. We have perused it with very high satisfaction; with feelings of surprize at Dr. Parr's proficiency in a branch of learning to which few scholars have directed their studies; and with a sincere wish that the great cause of humanity, for which he appears as a most able and strenuous advocate, may be indebted to him for reception among the rulers of the earth. We lament our inability to present the reader with more than a single extract:

'I cannot dissemble from you, that my humanity shudders, and my sense of justice recoils at the recollection of certain "things as they are," in a country which boasts of its freedom, its generosity, and its unrivalled progress in useful knowlege. If those boasts be, as I think they are, well-founded, the lenient and equitable expedients for which many wise and good men * have pleaded again and again might be proposed with the greater safety, and the surer result. If that knowledge be real, how can it be better employed than in teaching men to view the physical evil of punishment, not less than the physical evil of crimes, as a real deduction from the general stock of happiness—in calculating, so far as our limited insight into motives will permit us, the share that is to be assigned to infirmity, as well as malignity, in unlawful actions—in substituting, as other nations have done successfully, the restraints of shame for the dread of death—in presenting to common minds, distinctly and forcibly, the gradations of guilt by correspondent gradations of rigour—and in lessening the temptations to greater offences, when the commission of them seems to facilitate escape from *equal* penalties denounced against the less? If the *summum jus* be *summa injuria* in the transactions of individuals, who are condemned for yielding to the suggestions of the selfish and malignant passions, is it not possible that a state, armed as it ought to be with irresistible power, and governed, as the judicial concerns of it must be, by frail and fallible men, may sometimes step beyond the bounds of *real* necessity in the sanctions it affixes even to the most wholesome laws? May not the rulers of it be now and then actuated by the secret love of that power, which is more precious as it is more exempt from controul, and which, as self-delusion is always ready to suggest to the possessor, is most salutary, when it is most extensive? May not the very absence of corruption and venality in the administration of public justice decoy men into a delusive sort of self-complacency, and may not the very consciousness of impartiality in adherence to a known and fixed rule make them insensible, or at least inattentive, to the suggestions of compassion?

'When the philosophy of Ethics has been called down, as was said of the *Socratici sermones*, from the sky to the earth—when the principles of it, in the language of Bacon, "have been brought home to men's business and men's bosoms"—when the rugged and austere

'* Viz. Sir Thomas More, Erasmus, Johnson, Beccaria, Eden, Dagge, Voltaire, &c.'

rules

rules of law in civil questions have been occasionally mitigated by corrective maxims drawn from equity—when our prisons by their goodly appearance display the munificence, if not the humanity of the country—when the miseries of the persons confined in them are in many respects alleviated, and when the ruthless and "steeled jailor is converted into a gentle provost, the friend of men"—why do persons who upon *other* occasions shrink from palpable injustice and palpable cruelty—why, let me ask, in the exercise of their good sense and their benevolence for the welfare of their countrymen, do they stop short at the very point where life is to be taken away?'

These and other observations, which occur in this most solemn subject, are not to be answered by the flippant and unfeeling remark that "death is an *economical* punishment;" and when it is admitted that executions should be made more awful to the spectators, it necessarily follows that they should be rarely exhibited.—Another principal point, laboured in this note, is the duty of promulgating laws to those whose lives and liberties depend on them; for, while it is a maxim of English jurisprudence that all men are presumed to know the law, (or, at least, as Mr. Bentham expresses it, all *except jurymen*,) the fact is that, of the multitudes who suffer death, few have had an opportunity of being aware that they had incurred the penalty. The existence of this great evil has, however, been boldly denied; and it is asserted that every man, who is likely to be affected by an Act of Parliament, makes it his business to understand it:—a position, which may be true with respect to those who form a regular profession of theft or peculation, but which is obviously inapplicable to the young, the ignorant, and the inexperienced,—to all whom society is equally bound by duty and by interest to preserve from vicious habits and dangerous excesses.

Another of the notes, to which we recur with satisfaction, is that in which the posthumous work of our great statesman is freely reviewed; since, though 'the opinions' of the learned annotator have been, in his own language, 'largely anticipated, luminously expressed, and judiciously defended' by professional critics*, he is tempted to discuss a great variety of collateral topics at greater length than is consistent with the limits of any periodical journal. The style of Mr. Fox's History, to which we did not hesitate to state our objections, is here examined with severity; and an opinion is expressed, in opposition to that of Lord Holland, that many of the

* Here again Dr. Parr refers to the Monthly Review: but his *laudatory* terms permit us merely thus to advert to his application of them, as far as we are concerned.

reprehensible phrases, now found in that unfinished composition, would certainly have been expunged on deliberation. To the reflections and observations scattered throughout the narrative, perfect justice is rendered; and the following note appears to us so correct and interesting, that we cannot refrain from inserting it:

'In the pathetic close of the narrative which Mr. Fox has given us of Argyle's death, there are certain φανερὰ συνειδοῖσι which may lead us to suspect that he, at the moment, had in view the possibility of a similar fate to himself, if he ever should be placed in similar circumstances. Reflection, habit, principle, sensibility, all the pure and all the noble qualities of nature, acted in mild and sweet concert upon the mind of the writer, and they awake in the reader every tender and every generous sympathy of pity for ideal suffering, and reverence for real virtue. Of the interest created in men of genius by these imaginary situations, when self-love and self-respect recommend themselves by attendant simplicity and sincerity, we have a striking instance in a very eloquent passage, where Bishop Warburton describes Mr. Bayle as "a man who, to the utmost strength and clearness of reasoning, has added all the liveliness and delicacy of wit, and who, pervading human nature at ease, struck into the province of paradox, as an exercise for the unwearied vigour of his mind." He who thus writes of other men must have experienced in himself something similar to that property which he describes. When the pen of Warburton was employed upon a passage, where so much originality is united with such vigour in the conception, and so much ease with such dignity in the language, a *vox intus* must have whispered to him again and again

"Mutato nomine de *me*
Fabula narratur."

The diversified series of observations, discussions, facts, and anecdotes, which have been suggested to Dr. Parr by the fruitful subject of this important History, will lead the reader pleasantly and easily to a great portion of valuable instruction; and the progress of opinions relating to the Catholics is traced, in particular, with spirit and with accuracy. We think, however, that the Doctor forgot his promise not 'to chase with criticism *quod quisque unquam vel contemptissimorum hominum dixerit*,' when he undertook a serious refutation of a charge preferred against Mr. Fox for approving the principle of assassination, and hunted down the miserable insinuation that this approval was "first avowed after his honourable and distinguished reception at the Thuilleries." Mr. Fox himself would only have blushed for a press that could give vent to so low a scandal; and we should have been better pleased if his friend and panegyrist had passed it over in dignified silence, instead of giving importance to it by his animadversion.

In the course of this note, we cannot avoid perceiving that the author appears to have adopted, to a certain extent, the historic doubts of Horace Walpole. He describes Richard Duke of York, the brother of Edward the Fifth, as one who 'was perhaps immolated by Henry the Seventh,—thus following neither the hypothesis of Walpole nor that of Laing, (see the Appendix to the last volume of Henry's History of England,) nor much relieving the character of Richard the Third: but in conformity with the narrative set forth in Perkin Warbeck's proclamation, the probability of which has always appeared to us intitled to more attention than it has yet received.

Throughout the work before us, we find the usual propensity of the learned author to classical quotations and to liberal panegyric; and the profuseness with which the latter is dealt out sometimes gives a character of irony to a grave passage. Thus, in comparing the Grenville administration with that which succeeded, he says that he cannot attribute to the former the possession of "all the talents," since Lord Harrowby, the Earl of Chatham, and Mr. Canning were not included in it; and the last mentioned gentleman is also complimented for a degree of *good humour* incompatible with *virulence!*—The portrait (p. 582.) of the fretful and petulant antagonist, whose hostility harassed and degraded the declining years of Mr. Fox, is too "inveterate a likeness" to be mistaken; though the original should be metamorphosed, in the sight of a wondering nation, from a second-rate barrister to a first lord of the treasury.

Some mistakes occur in these volumes, but Dr. Parr has anticipated our intended correction of most of them. He has handsomely retracted, in the Gentleman's Magazine for September 1809, p. 799, (and subsequently in other Magazines,) the error committed in attributing to Mr. Burton, the puisne judge of Chester, on newspaper authority, a speech which that respectable magistrate never delivered. He also discovered, before his volumes were published, that the proposed alteration in the Scottish law of infanticide was a measure of lenity, not of additional rigor: but he appears to be still unapprized that the severe law of James the First is repealed in England, and that a milder system now prevails, under an Act passed in the forty-third year of the present reign, commonly called Lord Ellenborough's Act, from which the most beneficial consequences have resulted. Is it correctly stated at p. 378. that 'if death be inflicted; the sovereign is not permitted in ordinary cases to mitigate the pains of the sufferer?' We believe that it is not.

We

We conclude this article by expressing our wish that every great and good man may, in proportion to his talents and his virtues, find as warm an admirer and as able and disinterested a panegyrist, as the first statesman of our own times has here obtained in the first scholar living. The incentives to honourable conduct in men of exalted station cannot be too numerous; and the praise bestowed on unaffected virtue holds forth a motive and an example to the remotest generations.

ART. II. *Spanish Heroism;* or, the Battle of Roncesvalles. A Metrical Romance, in Five Cantos. By John Belfour, Esq. Author of "Music*," a Didactic Poem, &c. &c. Royal 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1809.

A POET, of confessedly great talents, has in these days revived among us the race of Minstrels, or rather has become the founder of the New Academy of Metrical Romance. That he has greatly improved the style of his rude originals; that he excels in animated description, and in the glowing representation of chivalrous times and manners;—nay more—that he abounds (to borrow the expressive language of Johnson) "in images which find a mirror in every mind, and in sentiments to which every bosom returns an echo;" we should be insensible indeed to deny. Yet, having allowed him this high and merited praise, we should be equally wanting in critical discrimination, if we failed to remark his gross incorrectness of expression, his barbarous mixture of antient with modern phraseology, his insufferable licence in violating every law of rhythm and measure, his utter inattention (except in the more interesting parts of his subject) to harmonious pause and cadence, and, above all, his childish introduction of spirits without dignity,—mere nursery goblins,—and of heroes without honesty, perfect Old Bailey-practitioners. He bears, too, on his shoulders the heaviest sin of misapplied genius and perverted taste, inasmuch as he has been the faulty model of a

---

* We should apologize for our delay in not having noticed Mr. Belfour's poem on Music, and for the anachronism in reviewing first the volume which has been so long posterior in its appearance: but the subject of the present work is of a more temporary nature; and if the incidental circumstances, which have occurred to cause our apparent neglect of the former, do not operate against the latter, we are unwilling to repeat the fault when we cannot plead a similar excuse.

thousand

thousand imitators; who, without any of his acknowleged powers, conceive that they are following in the path of a nobler original than classical antiquity can afford them; that they have broken the school-boy trammels in which their fathers were confined by their imitation of Homer and Virgil; and that, by a wild irregularity of verse, and a few cant phrases of heraldry and architecture, they are establishing for themselves the character of patent improved Troubadours of the nineteenth century, whose medicines are sold by every principal tradesman in town and country, made up according to the receipt of the inventor at Edinburgh.

These observations, which are every day more forcibly suggested to our minds, may offend the devoted panegyrists of even the faults of Genius: but, if strenuously and repeatedly urged, they cannot fail to convince the more reflecting part of our readers that they are founded in truth.—That with the beauties of the writer to whom we allude are intermixed whole pages of dry antiquarian detail; and that the most patient listener is sick of seneschal, squire, and sewer, of linstock, jack, and actor; of moss-trooper, and hackbutteer, and his bandelier; of fleur-de-lys and of quatrefeuille; that he is sick, we say, of these things, who will deny or who will wonder?

—"*Quis tam Lucilî fautor inepte est*
Ut non hoc fateatur?
Nempe incomposito dixi pede currere versus
Lucilî."

But that we have sympathized with the last and noblest of the Minstrels, that

—"We have listened and stood still
As it came softened up the hill,
And deemed it the lament of men
Who languished for their native glen,"—

that we have felt the sweetness of these numbers, and of many other similar passages in the latter, and of still more in the former of these poems, it were injustice to ourselves not to record.—*O si sic omnia!* have we exclaimed with heart-felt admiration and regret;—had this been the case, had fewer faults debased this original and lofty train, then might we have exultingly added—

"*Cedite Romani scriptores, cedite Graii!*
Altior en! nostræ Musa Caledoniæ."

Till this glory shall be ours, let not our poets disdain to follow those antient leaders who conducted Dryden and Pope to the temple of fame. Let them not fear that their own genius, *transcendent*

endent as it may be, will be cramped by the cultivation of their taste; and let them remember that the just and the natural are the foundation of the true pathetic, and the true sublime.

The volume before us is formed exactly on the model of the poems which we have been criticizing; and this circumstance will not only constitute our excuse for the preliminary remarks into which we have been led, but will shew the necessity of our prefacing those which we have to offer on Mr. Belfour, by some notice of his original. He does not indeed seem disposed to allow the copy to be so universal and so evident as we contend it is; for, in the notes to canto the third, he confesses, with an apparent consciousness of the inadequacy of his avowal, that 'some incidents in two of the stanzas of this canto are borrowed from Walter Scott.' Now really, when a whole poem, in point of style and manner, is a simple *fac simile* of another, to acknowlege that two stanzas of it are borrowed is a work of very superfluous candour. Let us, however, proceed to shew the justice of our observations from the author's own mouth:—but first we must present our readers with some account of the battle of Roncesvalles, as it is here represented, in a shape at least new to poetical description.

After having remarked that the former poets, who have undertaken this subject, have proceeded mostly on the authority of the French chronicles, Mr. Belfour thus details his own plan, which is modelled on the accounts of the Spanish historians:

'Charlemagne, Emperor of France, having rendered himself illustrious by his victories, Alphonso the Chaste, King of Leon and the Asturias, being without legitimate issue, and perceiving the greater part of Spain in the possession of the Saracens, sent, secretly, a messenger to the Gallic monarch, promising, upon his demise, to invest him with the sovereignty of his kingdom, if he would march his forces into the peninsula, and assist him in the expulsion of the Moors. This Charlemagne readily assented to; and crossing, in person, the Pyrenees with his peers, and a considerable army, marched into Navarre, attacked the Moors, possessed himself of Pampeluna, and drove them completely out of that province.

'This compact being communicated to the nobles and principal chieftains of Alphonso, they refused to concur in his views; and, supported by Bernardo del Carpio, determined to resist the progress of Charlemagne, should he attempt to enforce his right to the throne.

'Charles, apprized of the change in the sentiments of Alphonso, and incensed at the patriotic ardour of the nobility, who had sworn to preserve their liberties or perish; ordered a prodigious force to march into Spain, and to encamp on the plain of Roncesvalles: whither he resolved to move from Pampeluna with the troops already

in

in the country, to penetrate, in person, into Leon, and dethrone the Spanish prince.

'In the mean time, Alphonso, aware of his intentions, aided by his nobles, and, in a particular manner, by his kinsman, Bernardo del Carpio, called the country to arms; and assembling a numerous army from the several provinces subject to his dominion, assisted by Rodrigo, Count of Castile, and the Saracen prince, Marsilius, King of Aragon, (whom Charlemagne had imperiously called upon to pay tribute,) marched against the invader, whom he attacked on the plain of Roncesvalles; and after a most sanguinary conflict, in which nearly the whole of Charlemagne's army fell, with his peers and attendants, obtained a complete victory, and compelled the Gallic monarch to return to France, with his scattered forces, in the utmost precipitation and dismay.

'The poem opens with the rejoicings of the French on the fall of Pampeluna, and, interrupted at times in its historical narration by episodes, which rather increase, it is presumed, than diminish the interest of the story, proceeds, with regular steps, to its conclusion, by the discomfiture of Charlemagne and his army, at Roncesvalles.'

Of these episodes we must take some notice. That which occurs in the first canto is founded on the story of a Moor, who it seems has promised to bring to his unreasonable mistress the heads of Oliver, Rinaldo, and Orlando; and who for this redoubtable purpose sets forth for Pampeluna, where, having defeated the youthful knight Baldwin, he is himself vanquished and cruelly put to death by Orlando, after he has told the story of his love.—The opening of a poem, it may always fairly be presumed, has not been less laboured than any other part; we shall therefore begin *ab ovo*, and ask our readers whether the very style of the commencement of Marmion is not here brought to their recollection:

'Day broke on Pampeluna's towers,
And with refulgent beam,
Dispersed of night the shadowy hours
That played round Arga's stream:—
While, full on the astonished sight,
The Pyrenæan mountains, dight
With genial rays of liquid light,
Disclosed their giant form:
Where oft is heard the solemn sound
Of murmuring streams thro' caves profound;—
Or roaring winds, that swell around;—
The harbingers of storm.'

We shall not stay to remark such petty coincidences (since great wits will clash) as—

"Their voices echoing through the hall,
Woke Sewer, and Squire, and Seneschal,"

printed

printed, indeed, with inverted commas: but, briefly reminding Mr. B. of the awkwardness of his *inverted* genitive case, in the third line of our first quotation—

'Dispersed of night the shadowy hours,'

and which occurs again, page 6.

'Of youth the notice to engage,'

and again and again throughout the volume, we proceed to lay before our readers another proof of our assertion, that this gentleman has certainly obtained his receipt for writing a Metrical Romance from the great Empiric in question:

'Obedient to their king's command,
Forth from the tent the warlike band,
Barons and dukes, a splendid train,
Knights from each clime, renown to gain,
Spurred their proud coursers o'er the plain;
While cymbal, drum, and trumpet loud,
Announced their coming to the crowd.
Arranged the appointed lists around,
The din of arms and war notes sound,
The clash of swords, the neigh of steeds,
The prelude to adventurous deeds.
While, charming oft the gazer's eye,
Blazoned, o'er rich pavilions, fly
A thousand streamers to the view,
"Various in shape, device, and hue."
On scaffolds, richly-cinctured, sate
Matrons and maids of lineage great,
Robed in their ornaments of state.
And, through the range of tents, descried,
On palfreys gay, in ermined pride,
High-titled dames were seen to ride.'—

Passing numerous opportunities of exemplifying still farther the justice of our remark in this canto, we advance to the episode in the second.

After the council at the Spanish court, recorded above in Mr. Belfour's advertisement, Bernardo sets out on his journey to Pampeluna, where he is to announce to Charlemagne the change in Alphonso's resolutions. His parting with his mistress Olympia, it seems, is not so tender on his side as it might be wished, since the knight had been enticed some time before by a sorceress in the forest of Ardennes to the Fountain of Forgetfulness, &c. &c.; all which is very stale indeed. However, the knight pursues his way, and finds (of course) a naked lady tied to a tree. Two giants come out of the wood, and Bernardo (like Thumb or Bobadil) kills them both:—"Twenty more, kill them all."—The lady is

grateful,—the knight is enamoured,—she 'tells him her heart is another's,' and decently covers her bosom with her flowing hair. They then travel on together, and she relates her story, which describes her as a Spanish lady, and 'how she wooed an Englishman.'—This English knight, it appears, disguised himself in maid's attire, and (like the Chevalier Faublas, and a thousand other smock-faced intriguers) waited on his love, and persuaded her to elope: but they were overtaken, and separated by the giants above-mentioned.—[It is rather provoking, by the way, to be brought back to Mother Bunch, whether we will or not. When children have assumed the breeches, they naturally despise their petticoats, and resign at the same time their belief in Ogres.]—The English knight is then tossed off a rock into the sea, and the Spanish lady is courted by a young giant, from whom Bernardo relieved her.—*Comes jucundus est in viâ pro vehiculo*, as the saying is; so the knight and lady soon arrive at a hermit's cell; and here the ballad of Edwin and Angelina is set to a new tune, and the hermit turns out to be the lover:—who was rescued, as miraculously as Pangloss in any of his hair-breadth escapes, from the sea by some fishermen, and has lived (though not very happily) in this cave ever since! Bernardo leaves them to their joint meditations, and proceeds on his road to Pampeluna.

In all this we find very little to amuse, and nothing to inspire: but we remark a stanza of such unusual flatness and prosaic insipidity in the second canto, that, as a beacon to all future poets, we feel ourselves compelled to quote it. Alphonso is introduced in his palace, in a pensive state of mind:

'The offer of Iberia's throne,
To Charles, perhaps too rashly, made,
Awakened thoughts, engendered cares,
Which oft would sleep invade.
Oft in his mind ideas rose,
His aims the nobles would oppose;
Wont keen expressions to let fall
Of hatred towards insidious Gaul;
Or that, more fatal to his views,
His kindred would assent refuse,
And 'mong his subjects might instil,
Rebellion to his sovereign will.'

In the third canto, we have the description of a banquet,—the guests attired and the dishes avowedly served up by Walter Scott, Esq.—That the confession was absolutely compulsory, the following lines will plainly evince:

'Damsels,

'Damsels, and knights, and barons bold,
In weeds most gorgeous to behold,
Their limbs with pall and *sendell* braced,
And plumes, and pearls, and diamonds graced—
* * * *
'As *splendour* round *refulgence* spread,
The knights to grace the banquet led
The ladies fair—and flushed with pride
Each took his seat his *Mie* beside;
Duteous white squires and pages stand
Attendant on their lords' command—
And, mont the valiant to delight,
As peacock—pheasant—met the sight—
As boarhead, cranes, and venison,
Hallowed by Turpin's benison,' &c. &c. &c.

Here Durandarte sings a most woeful madrigal to Belerma, and amply accounts for that lady's seven years' scorn of his passion.—A *Minstrel* too sings a *lay* in due form and order; which containeth the courtship of a christian widow and a Moorish swain, who renounces his religion and loses his head for love.—Bernardo now enters, and delivers his message; and a spirited dialogue ensues between him and Orlando: some part of which conversation, as one of the most favourable specimens of Mr. Belfour's poetry, we shall select. Bernardo is about to leave the camp of Charlemagne, on his return to the Spanish Army:

'Yet ere he held the broidered rein,
And pricked his courser to the plain,
Orlando near his saddle drew,
And loudly cried, "Brave youth, adieu!
Yet doth it grieve me to the heart,
That we thus quietly must part;—
Thy prowess known, for honour's sake,
With thee a lance I fain would break.—
But we anon, shall horse to horse,
With fury urge the thundering course,
And wield the sword with deadly force;—
And happiest shall I deem the day
When thus we mingle in the fray,—
The proudest of my laurels won,—
Shouldst thou be by this arm o'erthrown,—
That when, in bold heroic verse,
My deeds shall minstrels hoar rehearse,
They may to listening chieftains tell,
Bernardo by Orlando fell"
"E'en be it so,"—Bernardo cried,
"If heaven's high will shall so decide:—
Yet though enchanted be thy frame,
Gladly with thee I'll risk my fame.—

In

In plumed helm and corslet bright,
Where hottest is the glorious fight,—
There shalt thou prove the temper of this blade,
And see around thee heaps of warriors laid;—
While louder far than the shrill trumpet's breath,
Is heard the cry of 'Victory or Death!' "
He said—And seizing on his rein,
Spurred his gay courser o'er the plain,
Anxious the turrets proud of Burgos to regain."

A prophecy of Astolpho, relating to the future greatness of Britain, is here most aukwardly introduced; indeed we have seldom met with any thing more irrelevant or more misplaced. Caractacus, Boadicea, King Arthur, and Lord Castlereagh, (for our assistance to the modern *Spanish Patriots* comes in for its share of praise,) are cited as warnings to Charlemagne not to attack a free country! This is really a transcendent instance of that unconnected rhapsody, which may be styled the genuine modern Pindaric, or the True Absurd;—a quality in our poetry which deserves a distinct treatise as fully as the Bathos. Here Mr. Belfour has far exceeded his great original; who, however, in his allusion to the late most honourable attack on Copenhagen, during his description of the battle of Flodden Field, must be allowed to have proceeded some length in his passage over the sublime regions of nonsense.

During Bernardo's absence, the Spanish court are dreadfully distressed by the loss of Ramiro, their King elect; whom the Moors have waylaid, and determine to keep in durance vile at Cordova, unless seven Spanish virgins are given up to them, or any of the champions of Spain will engage Almanzor, a gigantic Moor, in single combat.—As our knight, Bernardo, is journeying homewards, he hears, on the banks of the Ebro, a voice lamenting in one of the dungeons of a neighbouring castle. He is interested, and procures admittance to the captive, who turns out to be his father, the Count Saldana. This grandee had married Donna Ximena, sister of the King of Asturia: but the lady was immured for this offence in a convent, and the gentleman was sent to prison. As we would allow every merit to the author which lawfully belongs to him, we must notice this unexpected interview of the father and his son as one of the best parts of the book; though we must be contented with a reference to that passage, and to some portion of the battle in the last canto, as farther exceptions from our general censure of this performance. The quotations which we have already made are sufficient, we think, to establish the justice of our unfavourable sentence; and can-

dour has been adequately consulted by the insertion of the dialogue between the rival heroes.

We hasten now to bring the story to a conclusion; assuring our readers that nothing but a zeal for their service could induce us ever to undertake so unpleasant a task as the dry analysis of a metrical romancer's inventions: but without some such clues, most of these poems are inextricable labyrinths,

"A mighty maze, and *all* without a plan!"

We must, however, do Mr. Belfour the justice to acknowlege that he is intelligible indeed, compared to some of his contemporaries. Yet his episodes are so numerous, that we might almost call his work a poem in parentheses.

Bernardo, promising to exert every effort for his father's liberation, departs for the court of Alphonso; where he arrives just in time to fight the giant Moor Almanzor, after the latter has defeated several combatants. Having killed the Moor, he rescues the seven virgins. Among the wounded knights, his own mistress Olympia is discovered; who, assuming the disguise of manly armour, had endeavoured to meet the death which Bernardo's contempt made her desire. This proof of her extreme affection regains the love of her knight; and the incident is pretty enough. The canto concludes with the hostile troops being put in motion.

The fifth canto, to which we have been led by a long and circuitous course, and in which we now hope to see the promise of Bernardo's heroic valour realized,—just as we are anxious for the hosts of France and Spain to engage, and have taken our places on one of the heights which command Roncesvalles,—the fifth canto, we say, is again interrupted by a languishing episode of a virgin redeeming her lover's dead body, by her tears and prayers, from Orlando. At length, this hero marches to the fight, the armies actually engage, and the combat, as we have premised, is in parts well-described, though too tediously minute. The duel, however, of the two heroes, Bernardo and Orlando, is very spirited; and it ends with the death of the latter, atchieved after the same manner as that by which Hercules destroyed Antæus. We do not think that this *squeezing to death* is highly poetical: but the sin be upon the antient inventors of the mode! It will never be very fashionable with modern poets, notwithstanding the prevalence of the disgraceful art patronized by Pollux, in these our days of chivalry.—The defeat of the whole French army, and the establishment of the triumphant cause of Spanish Patriotism, conclude the poem.

Luigi

Luigi Pulci, author of the *Morgante Maggiore*, a noble composition, (portions of which we have seen admirably rendered by an anonymous writer in one of our Magazines,) has afforded Mr. Belfour his motto to the Battle of Roncesvalles:

> " *Valle,*
> *Tu sarai ricordata in rima e in prosa ;*"

the former part of which prophecy, Pulci himself has gloriously fulfilled; and the latter has been with equal fidelity accomplished by Mr. Belfour. Measured prose is, in fact, the highest title which his work can deserve; and we should not perhaps have extended our account of it beyond the simple remark above, had we not wished by every means in our power to stop the inundation of writers, which has been occasioned by the success of the founder of the new school of romance. His genius, be it remembered, is incommunicable; —that which gives animation, vigour, and effect to his poetry cannot be imparted to those who have it not naturally;—it is a brave disorder, which spurns all attempts to catch it by inoculation:—but the faults of his style are virulently infectious, and easy indeed of communication. *Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile* is applicable to this case at present above all others; and, since it is a desperate case, we wish that our brother-physicians of the college in Grub-Street would join with us in endeavouring to exterminate, by strong fumigations, by caustics, and by every efficacious remedy, an epidemic so fatal to the sanity of thousands of His Majesty's liege poets, in this happy fiftieth year of his most gracious reign.

Art. III. *Chironomia*; or a Treatise on Rhetorical delivery, comprehending many Precepts, both Antient and Modern, for the proper Regulation of the Voice, the Countenance, and Gesture. Together with an Investigation of the Elements of Gesture, and a new Method for the Notation *thereof*; illustrated by many Figures. By the Reverend Gilbert Austin, A.M. 4to. pp. 583. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

In no state of society, perhaps, has Eloquence obtained a more powerful and permanent influence over the minds of men than it now possesses in our own country, yet never could it be indebted for its effect to fewer external advantages. In fact, if some stern and rude Lycurgus, in legislating for our Saxon ancestors, had resolved to preserve the people from the dangerous seductions which belong to this accomplishment, he could not have taken more effectual means to guard against them, than by constructing the theatres of

rhetorical exhibition precisely in their actual style. On visiting the venerable pile which embraces within its precincts nearly all the important public functions of our commonwealth,—the seat of legislative authority,—the arena of political contention,—the abode of justice in all her awful majesty and under all her diversified forms,—how must a foreigner be astonished to observe, while he counts his sounding paces through the deserted hall of Rufus, that the interests of nations and the rights of individuals are discussed in antichambers and closets! When he has with difficulty effected his passage through the dark and winding ways which conduct him to the House of Commons, and has gazed at the obscure corner to which our senators retire to adjust the affairs of Europe, he will inquire for the leading orator of this distinguished assembly, and will discover him, with wonder, in the least conspicuous part of the building, and speaking as from the bottom of a well. In all our courts of justice, metropolitan as well as provincial, the advocate occupies a similar situation; as if the tendency of the voice to ascend had been alone considered, and the various advantages of a commanding position were entirely overlooked. We might be tempted to suppose that the elevated rostrum, from which our clergy address their congregations, was more favourable to an impressive mode of enunciation, if the reverend author before us did not most feelingly complain of several inconvenient adjuncts; observing that the preacher 'is inclosed nearly as high as his breast, and bolstered up with cushions in a narrow pulpit, from which he generally reads his discourse, with his face almost close to his book, whilst little more than his head and shoulders can be seen'—a situation which is condemned as equally destructive to the graces and the energies of delivery.

Even at our popular elections, where every facility should be afforded for addressing the collected multitude, and where the candidates should erect their hustings in the manner most conducive to this purpose, the venerated form of our great patriot was lost among a busy throng of poll-clerks and parish officers; and his voice was completely drowned by the murmurs of a crowd, from which there was nothing to discriminate his situation. One moment's reflection on the striking difference between the eminences from which Demosthenes and Cicero harangued the men of Athens and of Rome, and the post occupied by Mr. Fox while pouring forth his noble exhortations to the electors of Westminster, will place in the strongest view the marked disparity between the advantages prepared for eloquence in antient and in modern times; while the pitch-pipe of Gracchus, and Tully's specimens of phrases

so

so skilfully wrought as to throw all the listeners into ecstasy from the collocation of indifferent words, evince a degree of delicacy in the hearer, and of labour in the speaker, of which our own experience does not enable us to form the most distinct conception.

While the attitudes of our public speakers are thus circumscribed, and their limbs confined, by the place in which their efforts must be made, all attempts to gesticulate with grace and freedom may be deemed fruitless and unavailing, and no instruction in the arts of delivery can easily be turned to account: but we apprehend that a farther reason may be assigned for the neglect into which these arts have fallen. The English, we suspect, though it might be difficult to explain the fact, are naturally not a gesticulating people. A Frenchman can scarcely recount the most ordinary tale without a thousand rapid and lively actions, imitative of the facts described, or expressive of his own warm interest in them; the Italians are even more apt to second their speech with action: but an Englishman will not only relate a tragical event, or report a pathetic speech, or describe a vehement crisis, without any accompanying gesture; he will even act and say violent things under the influence of strong passion, without betraying himself to a distant observer by attitude or motion. Hence, on the one hand, the appearance of our theatrical performers is generally characterized as *glacé*, by those who have been accustomed to foreign stages; and hence, on the other, in some degree, our own surprise at the anxiety manifested by many foreign dramatists of our times, to regulate the positions, marches, halts, and gestures, of those who are to represent their works.—It may be remarked, too, that, though ballets of action have lately so much prevailed in our theatres, the plots communicated by pantomimic contrivances are always very imperfectly understood by the spectators.

Now, if the habits of Englishmen are decidedly adverse to the employment of gesture in discourse, the orator, in whatever department, applying himself only to the task of convincing and persuading his hearers, will do well to sacrifice all inferior considerations to their feelings and prejudices; he will (if we may make free with a line of Pope, which refers to a different object, but rests on the same general principle,)

> 'Consult the *genius of the place* in all;"—

and he will studiously avoid every risk of diverting attention from an important object to any peculiarities in his own manner. He will no more adopt the animated actions with which a Roman speaker enforced his argument, — the *supplosio pedis*,

and the *percussio femoris*,—than he will walk into the House of Commons invested with a classical toga, or address the peers of Britain by the title of Conscript fathers. The antient dress may indeed be far more graceful, the language more pointed and concise, and the gestures more energetic and appropriate, than those which are now in use: but a sensible man remembers that he is standing on English ground and speaking to an English audience. Mr. Hume, in his admirable Essay on Eloquence, from which copious extracts are properly made in Mr. Austin's volume, says that some commanding mind, united to a graceful person, an attractive manner, and a clear and powerful voice, might possibly succeed in introducing the use of gesture in our parliamentary debates; and he instances Lord Bolingbroke as possessing many of the accomplishments which are calculated to effect such an innovation. We are strongly inclined, however, to believe that even that distinguished person, had he made the attempt, would have been saluted with a general laugh, and would have found it difficult to obtain a second hearing. The great Earl of Chatham, perhaps, carried the approach to gesticulation quite as far as it could be tolerated among us.

Entertaining these opinions, we can scarcely expect that a 'Treatise on rhetorical Delivery, with Precepts on the Regulation of Gesture,' will ever become a very useful practical book in this country, or will impart lessons that are adapted to constant application. Nevertheless, we are far from wishing to reject such a work as altogether unserviceable. The limited portion of gesture, which custom permits in our public assemblies, should be appropriate and inoffensive; and, as "those move easiest who have learned to dance," and those stand most firmly balanced who have acquired skill in the noble science of defence, so the little which can be done in this way will probably be best done by those who have laboured with some care, and according to a certain system, to "suit the action to the word, and the word to the action." To such persons as are disposed to make the experiment, we may safely recommend Mr. Austin's book as a rich treasury of facts, anecdotes, precepts, and observations connected with the subject, drawn from a great variety of quarters, and arranged on the whole with perspicuity and convenience.

It is time, however, for us to allow the author to speak for himself; and we shall select a passage of rather a general nature, including in a great degree the leading principles of his system. If the reader should deem some parts of it a little fanciful, he will hardly fail, we think, to admit that it is strongly marked by predominating good sense:

'When

'When gesture is used and not marked by the precision of the stroke in the proper places, the arms seem to wander about in quest of some uncertain object, like a person groping in the dark; and the action is of that faulty kind, which is called *sawing* the air; which though suitable for some particular expressions (as doubt or general rejection of means proposed), is very offensive when frequently and injudiciously used. Even graceful motions, as they may sometimes be seen, particularly among singers on the stage, unmarked by the precision of the stroke of the gesture, lose much of their force and effect; and their soft flowing quickly ceases to afford pleasure. Gesture used for the mere display of the person, without reference to any other particular or decided meaning in its movements and changes, very soon disgusts. The gesture of a serious dancer in a *pas seul*, by its vanity and affectation, soon fatigues all, who are not enamoured either of the dancer or of the art. It is perhaps in order to do away this incongruity that ballets are invented and accommodated to some story, so as to create an interest in the gestures of the dancers by their imagined situation, and to give them the variety arising from the passions they are supposed to feel, as love, jealousy, hope, fear, disappointment, and joy. But all the unmeaning and unmarked motions of public speakers, whether on the stage or elsewhere, are attended with the same ill effect, as a mouthing and canting tone of declamation, which lays no emphasis with just discrimination, but swells and falls with a vain affectation of feeling, and with absolute deficiency both of taste and judgment.

'There are also other points of analogy in the management of the voice and gesture, which merit consideration. In the simple and narrative parts of a discourse, there is little effort or variety of expression in the voice; it barely slides up and down within the small interval which limits its modulation.

'Under the same circumstances the gesture, if any be used, is tame and simple; but, in the more impassioned parts they are both equally exerted: the voice is elevated and varied, and the gesture becomes more bold and frequent. The gesture also in many instances nearly imitates the manner of the inflections of the voice. When the voice rises, the gesture seems also naturally to ascend, and when the voice makes the falling inflection, or lowers its tones, the gesture follows it by a corresponding descent; and in the level and monotonous pronunciation of the voice, the gesture seems to observe a similar limitation, by moving rather in the horizontal direction without varying its elevation. And in general, the gesture will be found to follow the voice implicitly, as nearly as possible, by marking for the eye every idea, which that distinguishes for the ear, and by reserving its most forcible action for that word or syllable which the voice marks by the strongest emphasis.

'The writers upon gesture in general desire that it should accompany the words, that is, that it should neither precede nor follow them. This rule, if applied to the calmer parts of a discourse, will be found very nearly correct. But if the speaker be warmed or excited, some difference of time, however small, will take place between the gesture and the language. The order of the different ac-

tions or movements of the speaker will be best determined by investigating the rise and progress of the ideas which he has to recommend to his audience.

'A public speaker is supposed to have made, either from previous study at home, or from the rapid glance of the moment, some arrangement of the topics upon which his argument is to be maintained. These cannot all be produced at once; they not only appear to the hearers to arise in the speaker's mind in succession, but they actually do so, even when he pronounces a premeditated, or reads a written discourse. If his manner of speaking be confined to mere dry dissertation, he will proceed coldly and uniformly throughout; but if his argument be maintained by rhetorical ornament and illustration; and if he appeal to the passions of his audience, he will himself be excited, and the interest he feels, however rapidly he may proceed, will discover itself at each different period in the following order. The thought which arises in his mind will instantly be seen in his countenance, and first in his eyes, which it will brighten or suffuse, then suitable gestures follow, and last the words find utterance. The countenance and gesture are the language of nature, words are derived from art, and are more tardy in their expression; sometimes in high passion they cannot at all find their way, till the voice first breaks out into those tones and interjections, which appear to be the only language of nature belonging to the voice.

'In this view of the subject, the difficulty of reconciling authors to each other, and even to themselves, is got over: and the order of the combined expressions of the signs of a public speaker will be thus: In calm discourse, the words and gestures are nearly contemporaneous: and in high passion the order is; 1. The eyes. 2. The countenance in general. 3. The gestures. 4. Language. But the interval between each is extremely limited.'

Our scepticism, in regard to the utility of instructions in the art of gesticulation, by no means extends to the propriety of using every exertion towards obtaining perfection in the management of the voice; of which, indeed, the expressiveness ought to be the more assiduously cultivated by public speakers, in proportion as they are debarred from the privilege of throwing force and meaning into their attitudes and gestures. What is wanting in the one should be supplied by the other; and the oratorical style would receive incalculable improvement, if it were so laboured as to accommodate itself to the various powers of striking emphasis, instead of indulging in the endless volubility and perpetual repetition to which resort is too frequently had, in parliament and elsewhere, for the purpose of effectually impressing the speaker's sense on the mind of his hearers. Mr. Austin's precepts for the modulation of the voice are numerous and sensible; and his appendix contains an amusing and not uninstructive description of the means employed by the Phonasci of antient times to strengthen and improve

prove it. We should have been happy to lay this paper before our readers, if it were not too long, and too much chequered with Latin and Greek quotations.

The author's industry in collecting materials for his work has already received our praise, and is indeed more intitled to it than his discrimination and judgment in selecting them for the use of his readers. Many of the extracts will be found to illustrate the main subject in the happiest manner, and the classical reader will feel much indebted to Mr. Austin for preserving so much of the ingenious Latin poem of Lucas, *de actione Oratoris*: but not a few exhibit an immoderate appetite for making citations. Those positions of the hands described by Quintilian, of which the author professes not to perceive the significancy, might surely have been spared; and in speaking of the numerous plates, we must here remark that the engraved shoes, which mark the relative situation of the feet, will scarcely be found very useful, as directing the mode in which an actor should plant them on a stage which he does not see; that the various actions required in reciting Gay's fable of the Miser and Plutus are by much too solemn and vehement; and that, in recognizing some of Mr. Engel's attitudes, as expressive of particular emotions, we feel some of the difficulties stated by us in reviewing Mr. Siddons's translation of the work of that learned German*. If the reader, for instance, will turn to 'grief' and 'agony of mind,' (No. 113. and No. 114. in plate the eleventh,) he may be, like ourselves, more apt to imagine that the delineations are intended for "sober contentment" and "drunken satisfaction," than for the melancholy passions for which they are designed. The plates are nevertheless well executed, and in many respects form a valuable commentary on the book.

We are really loth to pronounce an unfavourable judgment on the new scheme of *notation* invented, explained, and very highly appreciated by Mr. Austin; yet he would perhaps still less forgive us if we passed it over in silence. We must avow, then, that we have examined it with care, and are sorry to acknowlege that it appears to us cumbersome, complicated, and ill adapted to its purpose.

In this volume, we have detected with surprize a few trifling errors. Richmond and Macduff are confounded, a speech of the one being ascribed to the other. It is much more extraordinary that Shakspeare's Mark Antony should be deliberately treated as the same person with Cicero's Antonius, who figures so conspicuously in the dialogue *de Oratore*, where

* See our Number for last April, p. 373.

he

he appears as the companion, as he was the friend and rival, of the celebrated Crassus. This grand mistake is formally introduced by a grave remark, that 'it is a little singular, if Shakspeare was as illiterate as is reported, that he has given to *Antony* almost the very species of eloquence which Cicero describes him to have possessed; so that it is questionable whether the real could have equalled the imagined Antony of our great poet.' We entirely agree with this remark, and think that the "*flebile quiddam in conquestionibus, aptumque cum ad fidem faciendam, tum ad misericordiam commovendam,*" was never so finely exemplified as in Antony's harangue to the Romans, in Shakspeare's Julius Cæsar: but Cinna the poet must not be treated as Cinna the conspirator.

In a word, we think that Mr. Austin's book, notwithstanding a few faults and some redundancies, may be found instructive and useful: at any rate, we are sure that it is curious and entertaining; and the reader's convenience in perusing it is consulted by a full index.

ART. IV. *Poems*; consisting of Translations, from the Greek, Latin, and Italian; with some Originals. By Mrs. Ware, of Ware Hill, Herts. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

A LADY, a scholar, and a poetess! We shall no doubt be accused of being barbarians indeed, if we resist these united claims on our critical forbearance. Yet we have a paramount duty which we owe to the public; and which compels us to greater accuracy and minuteness in examining these poems, and in stating our objections to them, than would be compatible with our gallantry under any other circumstances. Mrs. Ware seems not to be sensible that it is as easy to scribble indifferent verse, as it is difficult to reach the heights of genuine poetry. "The mob of gentlemen who write with ease" have their counterparts in the softer sex: but we by no means intend absolutely to include Mrs. Ware in so insipid a coterie; and we shall mention our specific reasons for offering some advice to this fair writer, as well as for tempering our criticism with a due degree of praise.

In the Battle of the Frogs and Mice, which Parnell and others have translated, and which is here purported to be rendered from Homer, but which bears strong marks of having passed through a Latin medium, we have the following grammatical errors, to say nothing of general imperfection in giving the exact meaning of the original:

Page 13.

Page 13. Mrs. Ware. 'Great Tyroglyphas' son.'
Homer. Τυρογλύφου υἱος

Page 17. Mrs. Ware. Lychenōrem,—a wrong pronunciation of the Latin accusative case in the literal version of Homer; which also should have been *Lichenora*, from Λιχηνορα·

Ibid. Mrs. Ware. Peleionem.
Homer. Πηλειωνα·

In Page 18. we have Troglodȳtes,—though in the page before Troglodites, rightly pronounced.—Ibid. Lichenor in the nominative case; evidently shewing that the Latin and the English accusative were considered to be the same.—Page 19. 'Tyroglyphus' again—with a small variation in spelling, as in the case of Lichenor and Troglodites, supposed, we conclude, to authorize the variation in quantity.—Ibid. Pternoglyphus—Πτερηνογλύφος· Λειχοπῖναξ, Lichopīnax; Crissodioctes, for Cnissodioctes; Pelusium (the name of a place, not of a man or frog,) used in the accusative case for the nominative Pelusius. —Page 20. μεδον ἦπαρ is translated "ruby liver;" and ibid, Artipibŭlus, for Ἀρτιπίβυλος·

The translations from the Latin are, as we might expect, considerably better than those from the Greek; which, with an exception rather in favour of the versions from Theocritus, we reluctantly characterize as decidedly tame and incorrect. In the Ceyx and Alcyone from Ovid, are some passages which rise above the mediocrity of the larger part of this volume: but at the same time we have manifold instances of carelessness, and want of spirit. Such couplets as the following should never have been permitted to see the light:

Page 53. 'Her falt'ring tongue thrice to address him tries,
But bursting tears all utterance *denies*.'

P. 59. 'Some furl the sails, while some incessant lave
From out the vessel the encroaching wave.'

P. 65. We have Athon, for Athos; and at p. 76. the strange adverb, 'unwelcomely:'—but the Cave of Sleep, page 68., is well described. The subsequent lines appear to us very happy:

'As o'er the stones the waters softly creep,
The hollow sound invites to calmest sleep'—

and we may refer to this place for several other examples of correct and poetical expression: but the last line of this translation is the most extraordinary specimen of a "lame and impotent conclusion" that we can recollect;

'And his descendants safely flutter o'er the sea.'

Page 80. we have 'nuptial *rights*' for "*rites*," the parties being not yet married.—Page 87. 'sputt'ring gore.'—Page 122. 'antique salts,' a kind of glass-cutter's phrase, to express the simplicity of *paternum salinum*. Indeed, we particularly wish that Mrs. Ware had not rendered into English, any part of Horace, that most exquisite master of poetical language; because failure is here certain, without a complete and profound scholarship, a perfect taste, and an equal force and elegance of style. Mrs. W. also, according to the custom of the age, has been strikingly injudicious in selecting the very best Odes of Horace for her imitation. Besides her numerous inaccuracies in these versions, she has made gratuitous and flat additions to the original at the concluding stanzas of *Rectius vives*, and of *Æquam memento*; and we read, page 137., 'through months successive roll;' 'the certain shore,' page 141.; and 'spectres rare,' 143.; which we confess ourselves unequal to reconcile with meaning and grammar: but perhaps one of the two requisites may be enough: we are unwilling to be fastidious.—Ibid.: the couplet

> 'In Pluto's shadowy realm you'll find
> The cot for peace or woe design'd,'

presents a new image to us, of a cottage in a very unusual place; and 'Acrivius and Danæ,' 145., introduce two new characters to our acquaintance. The lines

> 'One Macedonian hero paid
> His gold, and conquer'd without strife,' 146.,

concisely remind us of the Man of Macedon;

> —"*Diffidit urbium*
> *Portas vir Macedo, et subruit æmulos*
> *Reges muneribus.*"—

It is not thus that Horace is to be complimented away. We really cannot afford him to the fairest of our fair candidates for literary fame; and until England produces another Sappho, we must proscribe the goosequills of our countrywomen from the pages of the most enchanting of Roman poets.

Page 148. 'For those who covet greatly strive
With wants, by reason rarely taught,'

is a passage as animated as it is intelligible; and we could select too many similar instances of equal sense and spirit: but we forbear, and will merely observe that the table of *errata* in this volume had better not have been published, since the scantiness of the list only renders more prominent the faults which are not noticed. For instance;—we have 'Tuba' corrected

corrected to 'Juba,' page 114. but 'Apalia' stands uncorrected for 'Apulia,' in the very next line;—'tide' is corrected, if it can be so called, to 'hide,' 139.; but the word 'Gelonians' is printed with an apostrophe, wrongly, in the very same verse;—we have 'Tityon' for 'Tityus,' 129.; and Geryon for Geryones;—'infest,' and 'infest,' repeated, infest us through page 122;—and at page 127. we are told that

> 'An ample recompense they find
> Whom *Silence's* true dictates bind.'

We fear that we shall not find this recompense in Mrs. Ware's favour: but we could not be silent, consistently with propriety, on such frequent errors. The indulgence of criticism begets the abundance of authors.

To come now to the Italian translations; we must briefly remark that

> 'Orlando ting'd with blood,
> Drench'd with the brine, and spatter'd with the mud,

does not form a very engaging picture: but Ariosto himself is not particularly delicate, and his translator may be excused. Indeed her few Italian translations are, we think, creditable to her taste; and the scene from the Pastor Fido is very prettily rendered.—Let us encourage Mrs. Ware to pursue more attentively the study of this pleasing and poetical language. We are, indeed, on the whole, inclined to attribute the chief defects of this lady's translations to a want rather of sufficient acquaintance with her originals, than of poetic ability; and when we consider that she is self-instructed, (as she informs us in the preface,) we are more disposed to wonder at what she has attained than to blame her deficiencies. The faults which we have pointed out will serve as a beacon to her in any future production; which, if she suffers it to pass the circle of her friends, we trust that she will endeavour to render more generally correct in point of expression. From classical translation we dissuade her, till she has attained a more perfect knowlege of the languages which she professes to render: but we think that, in some of her own compositions, (particularly in the tender lines addressed to an absent husband, and in those on a deceased father, pages 191. and 207.) we discover a power of writing pathetically, and of attaining with care and practice a more creditable accuracy of style.

ART.

ART. V. *Monumenta Antiqua*; or, Observations on antient Castles. Including Remarks on the whole Progress of Architecture, Ecclesiastical as well as Military, in Great Britain: and on the corresponding Changes, in Manners, Laws, and Customs. Tending both to illustrate Modern History, and to elucidate many interesting Passages in various antient classic Authors. By Edward King, Esq., F.R.S. and A.S. Vol. IV. Folio. pp. 312. and 69 Plates. 5l. 15s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

THE sacred edifices of this island not only strike curious travellers with respect for the piety and religious zeal of our ancestors, but also display such various characters and styles of architecture as render them objects of study to artists. As to the most antient of these structures, they are indeed left to speak for themselves; and conjecture and theory have full play respecting the precise age of their erection, the plans which were originally adopted, and the subsequent alterations which they underwent. They nevertheless constitute materials for amusing research; and, when this pursuit is adopted by such a man as the late Mr. King, it must eventually prove a source of gratification to architects and antiquaries. Those who have perused the preceding volumes of this work are apprized of the learning, the labour, and the expence with which this gentleman prosecuted his inquiries; and while they gladly receive a continuation of them, they will learn with regret that the death of the author has put a final period to his undertaking.

Of the third volume, as well as of the exordium to the fourth, (which for certain reasons was published in a detached form) we gave some account in the 54th volume of our New Series, p. 113, and referred at the bottom of the page to our reviews of Vols. I. and II. Our readers, perhaps, will recollect that the Introduction to Book IV. Chapter II., which appeared in a separate pamphlet, respected the controversy concerning the era of the introduction of the Arch, a subject which we shall be required to resume at the conclusion of this article: but since it bears no relation to the inquiry prosecuted through the great majority of these pages, it shall not *bend* us from that strait-forward course which we are induced to pursue. Mr. King, in Chapter II., which occupies almost the whole of this volume, presents us with '*Observations concerning the History and Origin of the first Churches, and religious Structures amongst the Saxons,—and also concerning the State of Ecclesiastical Architecture, during the whole Period of the Saxon and Danish Monarchies in Britain.*' For this peep into antiquity, the author was as well prepared as any of his contemporaries; and though we cannot always see with his eyes, we

must

must do him the justice of admitting that he took great pains to obtain as correct vision as the circumstances of the case would admit. Marks of patient and extensive investigation are apparent; numerous detached specimens of antient architecture in this island are exhibited together; plates are given in abundance; and the reader is put in possession of a collection of facts on which he may exercise his own judgment.

Though Mr. King was aware of 'the difficulty of forming, rightly, adequate ideas of past ages,' and admits that 'the change of circumstances, and of the whole scene of things, is so great, that the mind can hardly be brought effectually to imagine itself in the same situation, or to form apprehensions, or conceptions, at all like those in earlier days,' (p. 113, note) he often ventures on explanations which require an intimate acquaintance with agents whose motives it is now impossible to appreciate, and whose taste and attainments are objects of mere conjecture. Every man, who is engaged in an inquiry so extensive as that which is prosecuted in this work, will be induced to form some hypothesis, and will labour to support it; we are therefore not surprized to find the author, having proclaimed himself the champion of Saxon architecture, employing all his skill and industry to revive its reputation; and to prevent the Normans from obtaining credit for structures which were erected previously to their ascendancy in this island. The characters and features of the Saxon style are here nicely displayed: but, as it is confessed that this style 'nearly agrees with the early Norman,' we are inclined to believe that Mr. King has often been too precipitate in his claims in behalf of the Saxon architect. Barfreston church, his first specimen, cannot be so antient as he supposes: its mouldings may retain the stamp of an age previous to the conquest: but its pointed arches evince a Norman architect. Perhaps not one ecclesiastical structure, which is entirely Saxon, now exists in the whole kingdom. That in several of our cathedrals, and conventual churches, specimens of architecture and embellishment truly Saxon are still to be found, is unquestionable: but these are blended with subsequent improvements; and it is often difficult to distinguish the one from the other. *Domus solidis suffulta columnis* may originally have been Saxon: but, when we see pointed arches springing from dwarf massy columns with clumsy capitals, we have good reason for believing that the Norman architect has left little more than the mere pillars. Plate VI. of this volume represents what Mr. King terms *Norman alterations at Malmsbury*, in which we see a pointed arch springing from massy Saxon columns, a Saxon arch with a

zigzag fret above this, and another pointed arch surmounting the whole; and he tells us that

'If an intelligent antiquary were asked the question, when these several parts were built? he must return the almost ludicrous answer, (yet perfectly consistent with truth)—*first the middle*;—*then the bottom*.—*and then the top*. For the wall originally was *Saxon*, with circular arches;—but in the time of the *Normans*, first the lower circular arch was cut out into the form of what was become more fashionable, *a pointed arch*;—and afterwards the still more modern window was added above.'

We think that a glance at this specimen would induce any architect to form a different opinion. The supposition is almost absurd that the builders of this church would take the great trouble of supporting the middle of a wall, in order to add a bottom and a top to it. We perceive that the prevailing feature is the Norman style; and if some apparently Saxon work is introduced in the middle story or compartment of the wall, it was for the purpose of variety, or, as it was thought, of giving a better effect to the whole. Still less are we inclined to attribute to the clumsy Saxons the very elegant door at Malmsbury, which is delineated in Plate IV.; and indeed we should as readily assign to the Goths the grand entrance to the Temple of the Sun at Palmyra. This door-way at Malmsbury must have been a subsequent imitation of and improvement on the Saxon style. As it is a well-known fact that the *ecclesiastics* themselves were *the architects*, in the early days to which we are adverting, it is conjectured by Mr. King that *Aldelme*, who came to Malmsbury about the time of building the monastery and church there, (i. e. in the year 640 or 650,) who had attained considerable skill in what was then called philosophy and liberal science, and who was able to build in the first style of that age, designed this very curious door: but it is obvious to remark that, if he had been enabled to design with so much elegance in one instance, he might also in others; and that, in this case, we should have seen the whole edifice constructed with equal taste and beauty of enrichment.

Wilfrid and *Grimbold*, in the latter end of the seventh century, returning from Rome, probably imported among the Saxons some knowlege of good masonry and architecture: but we cannot, at this distance of time, estimate the amount of their skill, nor state what improvements they introduced. Mr. K. attributes the peculiarities which occur in the Saxon buildings, to the state of mankind at that period; and he proceeds, at some length, to describe the ideas which then prevailed, as introductory to his history of sacred architecture. We do not deem it necessary to follow him in his account of their reli-

gious notions and superstitions respecting relics*, images, &c. but shall restrict our notice to the professed object of the publication. Passing over a variety of amusing matter, we present our readers with Mr. King's statement of the discriminating features of the Saxon architecture, by which it may be distinguished both from the *Roman* and from the *Norman:*

'The circumstance by which the *Saxon arches* peculiarly differ from the *Roman*, and from the *British imitations* of the Roman, ought not to be passed by unnoticed; which is, that the true *Roman arches have none of those odd mouldings*,—zigzag,—embattled,—triangularly fretted,—nail headed,—hatched,—billeted,—lozenge work,—nebulated,—twisted,—braided,—and tripled indented; whereas the Saxon arches are overloaded with them.

'It ought also further to be remarked, that although indeed the *Saxon arches*, and especially those of the latter period of the *Saxon* dominion, have sometimes only the zigzag moulding, which was afterwards also used by the *Normans*; or only the triple indented moulding; yet in general, when that is the case, there is a sort of wildness even in it, and often a *larger indentation*, which sufficiently distinguishes *Saxon* from *Norman* work.

'The *Saxon* arch may also often be distinguished from the *Roman* arch, as Mr. Wilkins has accurately observed, *by the very simple kind of* impost *moulding in stone, generally used by the Saxons, and afterwards by the Norman Architects.*

'These five peculiarities, therefore, are the characteristick distinctions of the *early Saxon arches:*—

'1. A studied diversity of ornament, in the capitals of the supporting pillars, on each side the arch; instead of exact uniformity.

'2. A transom stone, (or transom stones,) most usually filling up the semi-circular part of the arch, as if to support it on the inside; and generally resting on the pillars of the two ends.

'3. The supporting pillars, placed *standing inwards*, and somewhat nearer to each other than the whole diameter of the arch; and so as to support, with their capitals, both the inward *transom* stones as well as the ends of the arch.

'4. A loaded variety of ornaments, on the mouldings of the arch; and often *in very small compartments*,—And a great variety of mouldings, besides the indented moulding.

'5. Yet, in general, a very plain simple kind of impost moulding, resting on the capitals of the pillars, for the support of the arch.

'All these five peculiarities are sometimes, (though not often,) found united together in the same door-case, or window:—and are

* In a short note, we shall insert this curious morsel of history. 'The mouldering bones of Saints, or at least those substituted for them, bore so high a price, that in 1021, an arm of *St. Augustin*, Bishop of Hippo, was purchased by *Agelnoth*, Archbishop of Canterbury, for six thousand pounds weight of silver, and sixty pounds weight of gold.' p. 54.

ever so *truly characteristick*, that hardly any *Saxon door-way* is ever found without one or two of them combined.

'By these circumstances, therefore, such parts of truly antient ecclesiatical *Saxon* Buildings as remain may be identified.—But it is not to be imagined, either that these peculiar ornaments continued invariably to be used, *just in the same sort of fashion*, quite till the Norman Conquest; or that immediately afterwards, they went *entirely* out of use.—Now and then they were somewhat imitated by the *Normans*;—but in such a manner, that as far as I have ever seen any instances, they may easily be distinguished by a discerning eye, both by the *larger proportion* of the several parts, and by an evident introduction of *corresponding ornaments*, on each side, instead of the *Saxon diversity*.

'They may possibly also have been imitated from mere fancy, in a few instances, in succeeding ages; as they might even be introduced, in a mere modern building, so as to deceive the unwary.—But nevertheless they will still be truly characteristick of the *Saxon Ecclesiastical style of building*.'

To the observations made in this passage, the architectural student will attend in the examination of our most antient edifices; and as he proceeds to the Norman era, he will recollect the remarks, which Mr. K. himself appears often to have forgotten, contained in the latter paragraphs of the passage just extracted. The Saxon fashion is not always an evidence of Saxon antiquity. In the church of New Shoreham, in Sussex, for instance, a profusion of ornaments of the Saxon character occurs: but, when these mouldings decorate a pointed arch, as is there the case, can we regard them in any other light than as imitations of the Saxon, from mere fancy? *

The

* Let Mr. K. speak for himself. 'These sort of remains of the most antient *Saxon* times, are to be met with in more churches than is generally supposed;—and they are very often mistaken, as to their date:—because, in other places, as well as in a part of the Church of Shoreham, the original round arches which such Pillars once supported, have been pulled down, and *pointed ones* built in their stead; or even the very identical old round Arches have been cut into *pointed Arches*.

'Pl. XXXVI. represents some of these at *Shoreham*;—wherein, if they were not odd instances of attempts to introduce *the pointed Arch* long before it came into common use, (concerning which there may perhaps be formed some suspicions,) still the odd fantastick kind of work, found in the more antient parts of the Church, is in a very remarkable manner *imitated*.'

In the next page, we find the description of *a door-way and arches*, illustrated with a plate, on which the following comment is made:

'The *allegorical* simplicity of this design, shews the inoffensiveness of the *Saxons* emblematical devices;—whilst the regularity of its mouldings,

The Saxon style is marked not only by its whimsical, grotesque, and varied capitals, but by its numerous mouldings, or frets, of which Mr. K. gives a catalogue containing forty-one species; and he is of opinion that the fantastic ornaments here introduced 'were truly an *English invention*, which took its rise from ingenuity consequent on *monastic leisure* in this very island.'* Not, however, to the bold genius of the *Lords of the creation* do we owe the enrichments of Saxon architecture, but, according to this author, *to the Ladies*; whose needle-work, on their samplers, is supposed to have been copied in stone. To a female also he gives the invention of the *pointed arch*. We conclude that the ladies will respect the memory of Mr. K. for conferring on them these distinctions.

It has been the opinion of some antiquaries that no truly Saxon church had cross ailes or transepts: but Mr. King thinks that this conjecture is not well founded, and that St. Alban's and Tewkesbury churches are exceptions. He labours this point through several pages, but without producing any conviction in our minds.

---

mouldings, shews it to have been of a later age than those already described, and nearer to the time of the Conquest.

'The representation of two dead serpents, forms the upper moulding, with the extremities of their tails elegantly entwined, by way of ornament to the crown of the Arch; but with their heads hanging, in a flaccid manner, downwards; as being emblems of the destruction of the power of the serpent, and of the victory over the great enemy of mankind.

'This kind of simple allegorical device is surely *Saxon*,—and the Pillars beneath, stand on each side, quite *within* the compass of the Arch, also in a truly *Saxon* manner.—But, in other respects, the mouldings are such as might be suspected to have been *Norman*.'

It is surely a Norman door way, on the author's own principle, since the columns and capitals on each side are not varied, but correspond.

* This play of fancy, however, is not to be regarded as without precedent. The architects of Alfred are imagined to have been authorized by specimens seen at Rome and in Egypt.

'Of this introduction of *variety*, and departure from all rule, there are sufficient proofs, in the specimens of Capitals given us by *Piranesi*.

'These very *variations*, therefore, might probably lead the *Saxon* Artists, and the Travellers, to fancy they should even shew their skill, by studying to make still greater.

'The same sort of idea seems to have prevailed in the minds of all Architects almost, in what are called barbarous ages.—For of this there are still more unquestionable proofs, in the surprizing *varieties* of the Capitals of Pillars, in Egypt, and elsewhere, as given us in the curious Plates of *Norden* and *Pococke*.'

On the authority of a manuscript, it has been maintained that the Cathedral of Gloucester now stands on a spot "*a little distant from where the former* [*Aldred's*] *stood*;" and if this testimony be admitted, the Saxon architects must be excluded from all share in the present edifice, which was begun by Abbot *Serlo*, chaplain to William the Conqueror, about A. D. 1089, and was finished and consecrated A. D. 1100. Mr. King, in course, protests against the evidence of this MS.; and he contends that what was called a re-building was only an enlargement, and that a considerable portion of the original Saxon church still remains:

'Though (says he) the ornaments of the Arches have just the same indented zigzag mouldings, that were so prevalently in fashion, all over the kingdom, in *Gundulph*'s, and in *Serlo*'s time:—and so also have the little Arches above; and the mouldings on the walls:—yet the little Arches themselves, which, divested of their ornaments, are so much smaller, and so very unlike those constructed in *William the Conqueror*'s time at *Hereford*, and so exceedingly, both in dimension and form, like those at *Tewkesbury*, and *Pershore*, may induce us to suspect, that even *they*, as well as the great Arches, and Pillars beneath, were indeed a part of the old original work reared by Osrick, in 681 or 682, and were afterwards thus ornamented in *Serlo*'s time.

'Of such ornaments, added upon old original Arches, we have many instances.—And in the Cathedral Church of *Norwich*, there are not only Arches of the time of William Rufus, some with those ornaments, and some without; but on the south side, near the organ, there is one in part finished, with such ornaments, and in part unfinished, as it was originally; wherein (even till my time, and till the repairs of that Church about 1765) the very iron tool, which the last workman (who there lost his life) used, in the days of Henry the First, was left fixed in the wall, as a memorial of the sad accident which happened, of his falling from the scaffold, and being killed upon the spot;—in consequence of which event, the work was stopped, and this Arch left in an unfinished state; half as it was in the time of William Rufus, and half as in the time of Henry the First.'

The caution, with which the inquiry concerning Saxon architecture ought to be pursued, will be apparent from the following admission:

'Nevertheless it must be allowed to be true, that as modern *pointed Arches* are, in several instances, found to be now placed on antient originally *Saxon Pillars*; so also modern *pointed Arches* are, in some instances, found placed, even on such pillars as were, though indeed much more antient than the Arches themselves, yet nevertheless originally equally *Norman*.'

Remarks, accompanied by plates, on the cathedrals of Winchester, Oxford, Rochester, Canterbury, and Durham, as

well as on many other religious structures of inferior importance, are made by Mr. King: but we must plead the stale apology of want of room for passing them in silence; and we shall regard our duty to this long chapter as performed, if we farther advert to that which is here said to be a hitherto unnoticed circumstance, viz. that *Saxon Ecclesiastical Architecture* has had *three very different stages* or periods, and if we give Mr. K. an opportunity of explaining himself on these heads.

'1. *The early Saxon*;—or dawning Saxon.

'2. *The full Saxon*;—or perfect Saxon.

'3. *The declining Saxon*;—or last Saxon; liable to be confounded with the Norman.

'And the *criteria*, by which Buildings, belonging to these several periods, may be distinguished, are very remarkable.

'The first, and earliest Saxon Architecture, in Churches, draws our attention by the *multitude* of the minute, and *designedly varied* ornaments, of the several parts.—A characteristick specimen of which, may be seen in *Barfreston* Church, in Kent.

'The second kind, appears more bold, and in a more noble style, with *less numerous* ornaments:—but still with much *variety* in the adornments—of which there are most striking instances, in the Cathedral of *Christ Church*, in Oxford;—and in *Canute*'s great Gate at St. Edmunds Bury, in Suffolk.

'And the third, and last kind, is manifested, both by its clumsy, stately magnificence, on a greater scale, and in greater proportions;—and by its having cast off so much of *varied ornament*, that it is difficult to be distinguished from the *first plain Norman*; saving that the *first Norman* had still larger proportions.—And the specimens at *Southwell*, and *Waltham*, are sufficient to elucidate this fact.

'The first species of *Saxon Architecture*, continued from the conversion of Egbert, King of Kent, about A.D. 598.; and from the first building of Archbishop *Theodore*'s Churches, to the time of King Alfred, about A.D. 872.

'The second species of *Saxon Architecture*, continued from the days of *Alfred*, through those of *King Canute*; and till the time of the first *Harold*, about 1036.

'And the last species of *Saxon* Architecture, continued from that time, to the Conquest.

'During all these days, a little increasing degree of magnificence, appeared in Sacred Structures;—a little pomp and shew, in lordly Castles;—but whilst tyranny, superstition, and ignorance reigned triumphant, as little comfort as might well be, (except as it were by stealth), was afforded either to gloomy Recluses; (though they had more than the rest of the world):—less to lordly possessors of Castles; eaten up by their rude train of vassals, and dependants:—and still less, to the wretched inhabitants of such hovels, as formed, almost the only *private dwellings* of those days.—Let subsequent ages reflect, and be thankful.'

For the purpose of architectural classification, this division may be useful: but, as conjecture must in a great degree supply the place of records, the arrangement of particular buildings according to these eras cannot be made with confidence.

We proceed now to Chapter III., treating of the odd structures called *Pillar-Towers*, to be found in some of those parts of Ireland which were first converted to Christianity, and in some of the northern districts of Great Britain. Of the original use and application of these lofty isolated edifices, which resemble mere *pillars*, rather than *towers*, history has furnished us with no positive account, and various opinions have been entertained by antiquaries. Some, with Mr. Collinson, (see Archæologia, Vol. I. p. 307) have supposed them to have been places of penance; others that they were erected on stations where a *centinel* was placed with a horn, or trumpet, to watch against marauding invaders; and by others it has been conjectured that they were *bidding Towers*, for a proper officer to ascend, at regular times, to bid to prayer. Mr. K. is inclined to admit that, at different periods, they might occasionally have answered all of these purposes; though in his judgment they were originally erected for those religious recluses, or hermits, who were called, from their living on or rather *in* a hollow pillar, *stylites*. These *pillar-towers* are thus described:

'They are always round;—and built of stone.—Their diameter, at bottom, is generally about fifteen feet; or from forty-two, to forty-eight feet in circumference.—And within, the diameter is seldom more than eight feet.—But they are from seventy, to above an hundred feet in height.—The door of entrance is generally from eight to twelve, or even fifteen feet from the ground; without either steps, or stairs, or any means of ascending up to it, except by an occasional ladder, that might, for security, be drawn up after him, by any one ascending.—All beneath this door is sometimes of solid stone work; but from hence upwards, within side, the whole is hollow, having, in a few instances, stone abutments in the walls, all round, to rest timbers upon, for several floors, or stages;—and every story had a little narrow loop-hole for light, or else a window.—Whilst in the uppermost story of all these, there were four larger windows, manifestly for the sake both of looking out, and of being seen on every side.—Some, however, of the Towers, in whatever manner their floors might be supported, had no such stone abutments.

'In their external form, these Towers gradually diminish, from the bottom to the top; and they are each one generally covered with a stone conical roof.'

After having presented various descriptions and delineations of these curious buildings, Mr. K. adds:

'Such

'Such are the *Pillar-Towers* in *Ireland* and *Scotland*, that have been, either delineated, or fully described.—And such an uniformity of Structure is conspicuous in all of them, that they even seem as if they had been built by the same hand.—They are all, nearly about the same height;—the diameters both within and without are nearly the same;—they have nearly the same thickness of wall;—the door of each also, is found at a distance from the ground, except where the ground has been raised;—and there are never found any means of ascending to the top, but by a ladder from floor to floor;—four windows are also always found in the upper story, facing the cardinal points and hardly any elsewhere;—they have the same external appearance very nearly;—and their Architecture, and materials, in general are unlike the architecture, and materials of the Churches near whose remains they stand; and unlike the materials of other buildings in the country.'

Since the first inhabitants of these Pillars are supposed to have been of the sect of the famous *Symeon Stylites*, and since it is thought by Mr. King that Symeon borrowed the idea from the pillars of *Trajan*, *Antoninus*, *Arcadius*, and *Constantine*, the dimensions of these wonderful columns are given; not forgetting the *Monument**, built by Sir Christopher Wren, which measures 202 feet from the pavement, and greatly exceeds in height any of those that were erected by the Roman Emperors. Curious as the particulars in this part of the chapter are, we do not discover the fitness of their introduction.

* 'On this occasion, it is perhaps a justice due to the memory of our great, and celebrated Architect, *Sir Christopher Wren*, to add, that on close examination, and due consideration, his fine Column, the *Monument of London*, appears to surpass all the other Pillars, and Pillar Towers, in the World, in its ingenious construction.—For whilst we admire the magnificence of the Pillars of *Trajan*, and of *Antoninus*; and their immense stones, twelve feet and an half in diameter, and above four feet thick, (which must probably have been conveyed up by artificial mounts; and whose Staircase, hollowed within them, for greater strength, has *a solid Newel, or Pillar, left in the midst*); it ought to be considered, that the Monument of London, whose Shaft is so much higher than either, is not only composed of stones of small scantlings, but has a geometrical Staircase, *without any Newel, or central Pillar*, and apparently as it were hanging in the air;—to which may be added, that the whole Shaft was *fluted*, after it was built;—and yet, notwithstanding the vain fears of some spectators, this column is probably as firm, and as capable of standing for ages, as either of the others.—Nor ought it to be forgotten, that the Staircase, instead of having uneasy deep steps like those, has an easy ascent, the whole way up; the steps being each only six inches deep; and there being about twenty-one steps in each whirl; whereas, in the Pillars of *Trajan*, and of *Antoninus*, there are (according to *Bartoli*) only fourteen steps in each whirl. See the Parentalia, p. 322, 323.'

In reply to Mr. Gough, who says (Additions to Camden, Vol. III. p. 482.) "It must require a warm imagination, to point out the similarity between Symeon's Pillar, and the Irish Round Tower; the one was solid, the other hollow; the one was square, the other circular;" the present author adverts to the accounts given by Mosheim, and Gibbon of the Pillar-Hermits; and he endeavours to shew, particularly by a quotation from Evagrius, that the pillars were hollow, instead of being solid. By supposing the pillar to have been hollow, the relations concerning these hermits are made more credible, than by imagining that they actually dwelt on the top of solid columns for several years. Indeed, Mr. K. would persuade us that Symeon's life was much more comfortable than it is generally supposed to have been:

"The mode of life adopted by *Symeon Stylites*, has been spoken of, with horror by writers of very different descriptions.—By those, by whom he has been admired;—by certain pious Christians;—he has, with reverential horror, been considered, as one of the most suffering, self-denying, abstracted, humble, heavenly beings, of all mankind;—whilst, by certain even candid, ingenuous, good minds, loathing the fetters of unreasonable superstition:—and still more by infidels, deriding all good intentions, he has with contemptuous horror been considered, as most absurdly, and fanatically, flinging away all the comforts of life; and as voluntarily suffering dire imprisonment, and wretchedness, without any benefit either to himself, or to the rest of the world.—But perhaps neither the praise nor the censure, were rightly bestowed; nor were any of these conclusions just.—Human nature is a most strange compound; and under most uncommon circumstances, finds *resources* in a most astonishing manner.—Retirement, and seclusion, by habit, become not only easy, but pleasant:—and abstract meditation, and contemplation, to a mind that has any energetical powers, soon becomes most delightful—*Symeon*'s situation, on the top of his high Pillar, placed him in a purer air, and free from the noxious filth of Eastern streets.—It afforded him also, for amusement, a more enlarged, and more constant view of all that passed near the Church of *Mandria*, or in its environs—In an atmosphere so pure, and in such a situation, he could scarce fail of being somewhat of an observant astronomer, and of becoming a delighted spectator of the motions of the heavenly bodies, and of all the phænomena of the atmosphere—The same cord that brought him up his food, and water, might bring him up such books, and paper writings, as the age afforded.—The very strange, and long-continued, repeatedly lifting up of his arms, and his prostrations, in his devotions, which have been so oddly described, might afford him exercise sufficient for health:—the numerous votaries who came to consult him, and to ask for his prayers; to whom he preached; and with whom he could also certainly audibly converse, might prevent both what the French call *ennui*, and also depression of mind; whether he were a sincere, and good man; or even a crafty impostor; or a mad enthusiast.—In such a mild

a mild climate, where people in general, even delighted to sleep exposed on the roofs of their houses, a few garments would keep him warm.—And a sparing vegetable diet, would be the most wholesome.—On the top of his Pillar, he was not liable to be impertinently molested.—And his very long life, induces a suspicion at least, that he lived a tolerably comfortable one.—It was certainly an odd way of obtaining comfort, but it is by no means certain, that he did not obtain it, beyond his fellows beneath.

'And as to the perilousness of his situation, it was most probably much less than has been apprehended;—for though, through deception of sight, to those standing on the ground, the top of his Pillar has been reported to have been *only about two feet and an half in diameter*, yet that must have been a mistake:—and from the very words used, in the History, of its gradual construction, it must have been large enough, the whole way up, for *a dwelling*, or *abode*;—probably at least seven feet in diameter, within the circular wall at the top.—And in such a situation a person might easily stand, in perfect safety; even though, for the sake of being seen, when preaching, he might mount himself upon an elevated *little column*, or pedestal, of two feet and an half in diameter, (possibly of wood, though somewhat like those on which the Statues of *Trajan*, and of *Antoninus* stood), placed in the midst of his upper flooring; which, after all, might probably be what was meant by the Pillar itself ending at the top in such small dimensions, as *Raderus* describes.'

To an objection of Mr. Molyneux, that these towers were built by the Danes, Mr. King thinks that it is sufficient to reply that no such buildings are known to exist in any part of Denmark. This observation is of some weight: but few of Mr. King's readers, though they may admire his ingenuity, will be satisfied with his explanation.

At the end of the work we meet with an *Appendix, containing Answers to M. P. L. Dutens, in Reply to his second, third, and fourth Publications on the subject of the Invention of the Arch.* A considerable degree of irritation is manifested by Mr. King in this reply. He labours hard in support of his opinion that the Arch was not in use before the time of Democritus, who, he allows, might have been the inventor of it; and with great adroitness he comments on the instances adduced by M. Dutens, in proof of the higher antiquity of the Arch. Little inaccuracies, as to dates, Mr. King admits; yet he strenuously resists the conclusions of his opponent:

'I have confined myself, (says he,) to trace, with caution, *positive facts*.—And from the detailed consideration of the Gates, and Arches, in Rome, in the second Volume of the Munimenta (from p. 269 to p. 273); and from what has been added in the Introduction to this fourth, it appears to me, that almost *every Arch in Rome* may be ascertained to have been either of the very age of *Augustus Cæsar*: or constructed in some subsequent period.—It appears also that

that no Arches are mentioned in our English translation of *Holy Scripture*, except in one chapter, and that by mistranslation;—or by *Homer*;—or by *Herodotus*;—and that no Arches existed at Thebes, or elsewhere in Egypt;—or in Babylon;—or in Persepolis;—or even at Athens;—before the time of *Augustus Cæsar*, or at least before that of *Democritus*.'

This view of the subject, provided that it were correct, would decide the controversy: but Mr. King's knowlege cannot be so complete as to justify so round an assertion. He tells us that the *voûtes*, noticed by travellers who have explored Egyptian Antiquities, were mere *souterrains* covered with flat stones; and so they may be in some instances, though not in all. He may translate the words commonly rendered *vault*, or *arch*, in a manner that is consistent with his hypothesis: but the expressions of Seneca, "*Lapidum curvatura paulatim inclinatorum medio saxo alligaretur*," afford an exact definition of an arch; and though Mr. K. endeavours to deprive Democritus of the invention, by referring it to a period of somewhat remoter antiquity, we cannot suppose that the use of the arch even among the Romans was not older than he imagines. His opinion also that the great arch, at the front of the Emissario of the Alban lake, was erected by one of the Roman Pontiffs, is a mere conjecture.—On the whole, however, Mr. King appears to have been solicitous to arrive at the truth; and we are sorry that the great interrupter of human enterprize has deprived us of the pleasure which we expected from the remaining chapters of the *Munimenta Antiqua*, in which the different styles of Norman Architecture would have been fully displayed and discriminated.

ART. VI. *Transactions of the Horticultural Society of London.* Vol. I. Parts I., II., and III. 4to. pp. 169. Hatchard, &c.

IN the year 1804, a number of gentlemen associated together for the purpose of encouraging the improved culture of all fruits and garden vegetables, ornamental as well as useful, in order not only to render them cheaper and more abundant, but to produce them in the highest possible state of perfection; and while other public spirited individuals are employed in obtaining the best breeds of all domestic animals, the members of this body, which has lately been incorporated by royal charter, have displayed a commendable solicitude to acquire the completest breeds (if we may so express ourselves) of all esculent plants. We may consider this society as standing in the same relation to the Linnéan, as

that which was instituted for the encouragement of Arts and Manufactures bears to the Royal Society. To the *Linnéan* Society belong the classification and description of *all* the numerous objects of the vegetable world; while the *Horticultural* is restricted in its labours to plants that are cultivated or worthy of being cultivated in our gardens, for use or pleasure, and to the means which must be followed in advancing them to a state of superlative excellence.

Mr. Andrew Knight, who has deservedly attracted the attention of the philosophical world by his many curious experiments for the purpose of illustrating the physiology of plants, and who maintains a prominent figure in these transactions, presents us *in limine* with some *Introductory Remarks*, (which originally appeared in the form of a Report,) *relative to the Objects which the Horticultural Society have in View.* His enthusiasm excites an interest for this new institution; and if we cannot view the subject illumined with all those vivid rays of hope with which he encircles it, we chearfully subscribe to the utility of the pursuit, being fully persuaded that the state of Horticulture in this country is susceptible of considerable advancement. We know that 'the austere crab of our woods has been converted into the golden pippin; and that the numerous varieties of the plumb can boast no other parent than our native sloe.' We know, moreover, that few experiments have been made to obtain new productions of this sort, though some, especially of the apple tribe, are evidently declining; and, since almost every ameliorated variety of fruit appears to have been the result of accident, we may fairly infer with Mr. K. that an ample field for discovery lies open. Much dependence is placed by Mr. Knight on the natural tendency of all plants to adapt their habits to every climate into which art or accident has introduced them, and he specifies instances in corroboration of this fact: but we apprehend that this principle obtains only to a certain extent; and we fear that he is too sanguine when he observes that 'we have some grounds of hope that the vine and peach tree may be made to adapt their habits to our climate, and to ripen their fruits without the aid of artificial heat, or the reflection of a wall.' We read, indeed, in antient records, of the *Vineyards* which once flourished in Britain: but the attempts of moderns to ripen grapes without the reflection of a wall have, for the most part, been abortive. The ingenious reporter seems, in the subsequent paragraph, to hint at the cause of this and similar failures; and he makes a material distinction between plants propagated by division of their parts and by seed;

'By

'By the first of these methods (he says) we are enabled to multiply an individual into many; each of which, in its leaves, its flowers, and fruit, permanently retains, in every respect, the character of the parent stock. No new life is here generated; and the graft, the layer, and cutting, appear to possess the youth and vigour, or the age and debility, of the plant, of which they once formed a part*. No permanent improvement has therefore ever been derived, or can be expected, from the art of the grafter, or the choice of stocks of different species, or varieties: for, to use the phrase of Lord Bacon, the graft in all cases *overruleth the stock*, from which it receives *aliment but no motion*. Seedling plants, on the contrary, of every cultivated species, sport in endless variety. By selection from these therefore we can only hope for success in our pursuit of new and improved varieties of each species of plant or fruit; and to promote experiments of this kind the Horticultural Society propose to give some honorary premiums to those who shall produce before them, or such persons as they shall appoint, valuable new varieties of fruit, which, having been raised from seeds, have come into existence since the establishment of the institution.'

Various other suggestions are thrown out; and the writer concludes with remarking that 'there scarcely exists a single species of esculent plant or fruit, which (relative to the use of man) has yet attained its utmost state of perfection; nor any branch of practical horticulture, which is not still susceptible of essential improvement.' As we coincide with him in this opinion, we hope that the Society will meet with encouragement, and its object be prosecuted with spirit.

The first communication is intitled *An attempt to ascertain the time when the Potatoe (Solanum Tuberosum) was first introduced into the United Kingdom; with some account of the Hill Wheat of India.* By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K.B. P.R.S. &c.—It is rather unfortunate that the Society should commence its labours with a paper which, as being more agricultural than horticultural, is not strictly within its perview: but it no doubt felt itself complimented by this notice from the President of the Royal Society.—Sir Joseph enters into some details, from which he infers that potatoes were first brought into Europe from the mountainous parts of South America, in the vicinity of Quito.—As to the *Hill-Wheat*, the account is very short, and not very satisfactory. The seeds of the Hill-Wheat from India presented to the Right Honourable Baronet were scarcely larger than those

* 'The diseased state of young grafted trees of the *golden pippin*, and the debasement of the flavour of that fruit, afford one, amongst a thousand instances, which may be adduced, of the decay of those varieties of fruit which have been long propagated by grafting, &c.'

of

of our wild grasses; yet, when sown in the garden, the produce proved to be wheat of the spring kind; and the grains were nearly, if not quite, as large as those of the ordinary spring-wheat. It could not be ascertained from what part of the Peninsula this *Hill-Wheat* (as it was called on the paper containing the seed) was brought: but the following notification is subjoined, for the sake of obtaining information:

'This hill-wheat is no doubt known to some persons, who either are now in India, or have returned from thence into this country; and it is certainly a matter of some importance to know what they can inform us on the subject of it; especially whether this wheat is a cultivated, or a wild plant; as we shall, if the latter is the case, ascertain two of the greatest desiderata of cultivators; the country where wheat grows spontaneously; and the nature of the grain in its original state, when unassisted by the fostering hand of man.'

On the Culture of the Crambe Maritima of Linné, or Sea Kale. By Mr. John Maher, F.H.S.—In this paper we meet with an object strictly within the department of the Society; and Mr. Maher has given plain directions for raising in our gardens this vegetable, which by some persons is much esteemed, and placed almost on a level with asparagus. After having given its botanic description, and the usual places of its habitation on our sea-coasts, Mr. M. describes the mode of deep trenching, manuring, and lightening the soil by the addition of sand, where it is necessary, as well as the management of the plants in the beds, and the blanching them by pots. A plate representing the blanching-pot, made of baked clay, in the shape of a bell-glass somewhat flattened, is subjoined.

Some Hints respecting the proper Mode of inuring Tender Plants to our Climate. By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., &c.—Mr. Knight's principle of giving hardihood to plants which came originally from a warm climate, and of training them gradually to bear the severity of our own, by propagating not from suckers but from seeds, through a number of generations, is here very well illustrated:

'In the year 1791, some seeds of Zizania aquatica, were procured from Canada, and sown in a pond at Spring Grove, near Hounslow; it grew, and produced strong plants, which ripened their seeds; those seeds vegetated in the succeeding spring, but the plants they produced were weak, slender, not half so tall as those of the first generation, and grew in the shallowest water only; the seeds of these plants produced others the next year sensibly stronger than their parents of the second year.

'In this manner the plants proceeded, springing up every year from the seeds of the preceding one, every year becoming visibly stronger and larger, and rising from deeper parts of the pond, till the last year, 1804, when several of the plants were six feet in height, and the whole pond

pond was in every part covered with them as thick as wheat grows on a well-managed field.

'Here we have an experiment which proves, that an annual plant, scarce able to endure the ungenial summer of England, has become, in fourteen generations, as strong and as vigorous as our indigenous plants are, and as perfect in all its parts as in its native climate.'

This experiment is encouraging, and by a subsequent paper our hopes are strengthened.

On a Variety of the Brassica Napus, or Rape, which has long been cultivated on the Continent. By Mr. James Dickson, F.L.S. V.P.H.S.—This *Brassica Napus* is represented as far superior to the common Turnip in flavour. It is said to enrich all the soups in Germany, and to have so thin a rind as to require merely to be scraped. We are also informed that it is sold by only one person in Covent Garden: but, as the name of this person is not given, the reader will probably wish in vain for this *turnip of turnips.*

Observations on the Method of producing new and early Fruits. By T. Andrew Knight, Esq. F.R.S. &c.—The principles laid down in this paper appear to be judicious; and the results of the trials made by the author, in raising new plants from seeds of the apple and of the vine, are promising: but, as his experiments are yet in their infancy, we shall not here enter into any detail, merely stating this single maxim for the direction of the horticulturist who may wish to imitate Mr. K.

'New varieties of every species of fruit will generally be better obtained by introducing the farina of one variety of fruit into the blossom of another, than by propagating from any single kind. When an experiment of this kind is made, between varieties of different size and character, the farina of the smaller kind should be introduced into the blossoms of the larger.'

On the Cultivation of the Polyanthes Tuberosa, or Tuberose; with its botanical Description and Figure. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. &c.—After having sung the praise of Horticulture (here termed the younger and more delicate sister of Agriculture) in poetical prose, Mr. Salisbury proceeds to recommend the culture of the Tuberose as likely, in the warmer soils of this kingdom, to repay with profit the labour attending it. The history of this beautiful and fragrant plant is given; and though we have hitherto received its roots from the warmer provinces of North America as well as Italy, Mr. S. adduces his experience to prove that we need not be indebted to foreign countries for this supply. He has cultivated the Tuberose for many years in the open air at Chapel Allerton, and details his mode of proceeding: but we think that his calculations of profit are too liberal. A fine plate is added.

On

On the Revival of an obsolete Mode of managing Strawberries. By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. &c.—The Strawberry is supposed to have obtained its name from the straw which was originally laid under the plants when their fruit began to swell, and the advantages of this good old custom are here recapitulated.

On raising new and early Varieties of the Potatoe (Solanum tuberosum.) By T. Andrew Knight, Esq. &c.—It is well known that the early varieties of this plant do not produce seed; and Mr. K., suspecting the cause to be the preternatural early formation of the tuberous roots, proceeded by first washing away the earth to separate from the stem of the plant the runners on which the bulbs are formed, and which are perfectly distinct organs from the fibrous roots. By this process, preventing the strength of the plant from being exhausted at the root, he enabled the stem to flower, and to perfect its seed. The discovery is important, and may be followed by useful consequences. We are therefore glad that this vegetable physiologist purposes to follow up his experiments.

On the Advantages of grafting Walnut, Mulberry, and Chesnut Trees. By the same.—Grafting, as a process for bringing trees into early bearing, is well known: but it is here recommended to be applied to trees which are not usually grafted in this country. The author maintains, on the ground of long experience, 'that the graft derives nutriment only, and not growth, from the young stock in which it is inserted; and that with the life of the parent stock the graft retains its habit and its constitution.'

An Account of some New Apples, which, with many others that have been long cultivated, were exhibited before the Horticultural Society, the 2d December, 1806. By Mr. Arthur Biggs, F.H.S.—We have here a catalogue of ten apples which ripen early, of 53 autumn and winter varieties, (all those which are valuable being marked with a star *) and of 8 new varieties. Mr. B. also particularly describes the *William's Pippin, Padley's Pippin, Bigg's Nonsuch,* and *Minier's Dumpling.*

On the Cultivation of the common Flax (Linum usitatissimum of Linné,) as an ornamental Plant in the Flower Garden. By Mr. John Dunbar, Gardener to Thomas Fairfax, Esq.—Mr. Dunbar wishes to see the Flax supplant 'the cumbersome yellow Lupine' in our flower-border, and he thinks that the advantage to the servants, if not to the master, may be considerable. He tells us, indeed, that, by this simple expedient, a family consisting of five persons has been supplied with all the linen which they required; and he adds directions for the cultiva-

tion

tion of the plant, and the preparation of the flax till it is sent to the dressers.

An Account of the Method of cultivating the American Cranberry, Vaccinium Macrocarpum, at Spring Grove. By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. &c.—The *Vaccinium* promises, by this short report of its first cultivation, on an artificial island, and then on the banks of a pond at Spring Grove, near Hounslow, to form a valuable addition to our horticultural riches, when it can be planted near water in a boggy soil.

'It is remarkable that, during the seven years these *Cranberries* have been cultivated at *Spring Grove*, no circumstance has arisen, from the variety of seasons, from blight, or any other circumstance, that has diminished the quantity of a full crop; the flowers have issued out of their buds, in abundance, in their due season, and fewer of them have been abortive, than in general is the case in other plants. The fruit has gradually swelled and duly ripened without being subject to the attack of any vermin, or to injuries of any kind from the excesses of heat or cold, or from those of wetness or of drought.'

The fruit of the Cranberries grown at Spring Grove is said to be superior in flavour to any that is imported. The contents of the beds are 326 square feet, and they produced in the year 1807 five dozen bottles.

On a new Method of training Fruit Trees. By T. Andrew Knight, Esq. &c.—A plate is annexed to this paper, without which it is impossible to convey an adequate idea of the process here recommended. We shall only remark that, in Mr. K.'s method of treating Peach-trees, very little use was made of the knife during winter; and that the necessity of winter-pruning should be avoided as much as possible.

Observations on the different Species of Dahlia, and the best Method of cultivating them in Great Britain. By R.A. Salisbury, Esq. &c.—This curious paper does not admit of abridgment; and we can merely state that the *Dahlia*, a native of Mexico, was introduced into this country from Madrid by Lady Holland, that it flowers with us in September and October, and is a valuable addition to our ornamental perennial plants. Mr. Salisbury minutely details his mode of raising and cultivating it.

A Description of a Forcing House for Grapes; with Observations on the best Method of constructing them for other Fruits. By T.A. Knight, Esq. &c.—Under a conviction that few of our Forcing Houses are well constructed, Mr. Knight judiciously investigates the principles which should guide us in the erection of them.

'It is well known, (he observes,) that the sun operates most powerfully in the Forcing House, when its rays fall most perpendicularly on the root: because the quantity of light, that glances off without

without entering the house, is inversely proportionate to the degree of obliquity with which it strikes upon this surface of the glass; and it is important to every builder of a Forcing House to know by what elevation of the roof, the greatest quantity of light can be made to pass through it. To ascertain this point, I have made many experiments, and the result of them has satisfied me that, in latitude 52, the best elevation is about that of 34 degrees.'

No upright front glass, he says, ought in any case whatever to be used.—To prevent the bleeding of Vines, he recommends a composition made of 4 parts of scraped cheese and 1 part of calcined oyster-shells, or other pure calcareous earth. If this mixture be pressed strongly into the pores of the wood, the sap will instantly cease to flow; it therefore enables us to take off the largest branch, at any season, with safety.

A short Account of Nectarines and Peaches naturally produced on the same Branch. By R. A. Salisbury, Esq. &c.—Six instances are given of this anomaly, the 5th and 6th of which were seen and examined by Mr. S. He is not satisfied with attributing them to the *pollen* of neighbouring Nectarines, but concludes that these and other variations 'proceed from laws in vegetation, of which we are yet ignorant, but which are immediately connected with the transudation of the sap through the cuticle.'

An Account of a Method of hastening the Maturation of Grapes. By John Williams, Esq.—In order to prevent the return of sap towards the root, and to retain it in the fruit-bearing branches, Mr. W. cut through the cortex and liber of the stem, without wounding the alburnum, and took out a narrow circle, from one to two-eighths of an inch wide; by which process he caused the fruit rapidly to swell, and to ripen earlier than it would on other plants not similarly treated.

Observations on the Culture of the Dahlias, in the Northern parts of Great Britain. By John Wedgwood, Esq. F.H.S.—This short paper, on those highly beautiful flowers, the *Dahlias*, may be regarded as a supplement to the communication, before-mentioned, from Mr. Salisbury, to whom it is addressed. Mr. W. considers these plants to be nearly as hardy as the Potatoe, and is persuaded that they may be naturalized in Devonshire.

Hints relative to the Culture of the Early Purple Brocoli, as practised in the garden of Daniel Beale, Esq. at Edmonton. By Mr. John Maher, F.H.S.—We have here a detail of the particulars of Mr. M.'s mode of cultivating this useful vegetable, which of late years has been greatly improved.

An Account of the Burr-knot Apple. By the Rev. John Simpson.—This species of apple-tree may be propagated by

cuttings which bear fruit in the first year. It is thus described:

'The *Burr-knott* Apple tree is uncommonly productive. My trees never miss bearing, not being so liable to blight in inclement seasons, as other varieties. The fruit is large, its tints resembling the *Ribston Pippin*, and about its size. For culinary uses, it is not inferior to the choicest *Codlin*, and a much better keeper. The tree is not liable to canker, owing, I am persuaded, to its not putting out a tap-root, but spreading its numerous fibres from the knob horizontally, and following the richness of the soil.'

On the Cultivation of Crocuses, with a short Account of the different Species known at present. By A. H. Haworth, Esq. F.L.S. and H.S. &c.—The author here furnishes an account of the mode of raising the crocus from seed, as well as a botanical description of this genus of plants, with 13 distinct varieties. A beautiful coloured plate is added, exhibiting the *Crocus stellaris*.

On the Horticultural Management of the Sweet or Spanish Chesnut-Tree. By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. &c.—The object of this paper is to recommend the grafting of the Spanish chesnut. The nuts thus produced, though smaller than the imported fruit, are beyond comparison sweeter.

On the proper Construction of Hot-bed Frames. By T. A. Knight, Esq. &c.—It is here recommended, instead of making the back of the frame higher than the front, to place the *hot-bed* on an inclined plane of earth, elevated about 15 degrees; to make the surface of the dung and mould parallel with it; and to adapt the frame, with equal sides, to the surface of the bed. By these means, expence and labour are saved, and the plants throughout the frame are equidistant from the glass. Mr. K. also describes a mode of forwarding grapes, by bending their branches from the wall into a frame over a hot-bed.

A short Account of a new Apple, called the Downton Pippin. By the same.—This new apple is offered as 'an humble imitation of the *Golden Pippin*, its male parent, being formed (as Mr. K. tells us) by introducing the pollen of this variety into the blossom of an apple, most generally known by the name of the *Orange Pippin*.' The Downton Pippin is reported to be exuberantly productive.

On the Forcing-Houses of the Romans, with a List of Fruits cultivated by them, now in our Gardens. By the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. &c.—In this very curious communication, even the attention of the classical reader will be

excited. Sir Joseph Banks acknowleges that he is indebted to Mr. A. Knight for the information, which he acquired from the perusal of Martial, (vid. lib. viii. 14 and 68.) that the Romans enjoyed the luxury of *Forcing-Houses*: but this hint being given, Pliny of course was searched, and farther light was thrown on the subject. It appears that the article, with which these houses were glazed, if the term may be used, was *Talk*, or what we call Muscovy glass (*Lapis Specularis*); and that the glazier, or person who fitted the panes, was called *Specularius*. The fruits cultivated at Rome in the time of Pliny were *Almonds*, *Apples*, *Apricots*, *Cherries*, *Chesnuts*, *Figs*, *Medlars*, *Mulberries*, *Nuts*, *Pears*, *Plumbs*, *Quinces*, *Services*, *Strawberries*, *Vines*, and *Walnuts*. On this last article the Right Honourable author indulges a little wit; observing that 'in the golden age, when man lived on acorns, the Gods lived upon Walnuts, hence the name *Juglans*, *Jovis Glans*.' Having adverted to the Forcing-houses of the antients, and to the Hot-houses of the moderns, Sir Joseph intimates the improvements of which the latter are susceptible, and promises that the next generation shall enjoy horticultural blessings to which, at present, even the luxurious among us are strangers.

'The next generation will no doubt erect *Hot-houses* of much larger dimensions than those to which we have hitherto confined ourselves, such as are capable of raising trees of considerable size; they will also instead of heating them with flues, such as we use, and which waste in the walls that conceal them, more than half of the warmth they receive from the fires that heat them, use naked tubes of metal filled with *steam* instead of *smoke*. Gardeners will then be enabled to admit a proper proportion of air to the trees in the season of flowering, and as we already are aware of the use of *bees* in our *cherry houses* to distribute the pollen where wind cannot be admitted to disperse it, and of shaking the trees when in full bloom, to put the pollen in motion, they will find no difficulty in setting the shyest kinds of fruits.

'It does not require the gift of prophecy to foretell, that ere long the *Aki* and the *Avocado pear* of the West Indies, the *Flat Peach*, the *Mandarine Orange*, and the *Litchi* of China, the *Mango*, the *Mangostan* and the *Durion* of the East Indies, and possibly other valuable fruits, will be frequent at the tables of opulent persons; and some of them perhaps in less than half a century, be offered for sale on every market day at *Covent Garden*.'

On the Management of the Onion. By T. A. Knight, Esq. &c.—We are told that Mr. K. sows the seed of the *Spanish* or *Portugal Onion*, in the spring, under the shade of a fruit tree in a poor soil; and that the bulbs, which do not exceed the size of a large pea, are taken up in autumn, and planted out in the succeeding spring at equal distances. Onions have been

raised, in this way, which often exceed five inches in diameter.

An improved Method of cultivating the Alpine Strawberry. By the same.—This process consists of sowing the seed of the Alpine Strawberry on a moderate hot-bed in the beginning of April, and removing the plants, as soon as they have acquired sufficient strength, to beds in the open ground. They will begin to blossom after midsummer, and afford an abundant late autumnal crop. Mr. K. thinks that this Strawberry ought always to be treated as an annual plant.

Observations on the Form of Hot-houses. By the Rev. Thomas Wilkinson.—Mr. W. shews, on mathematical principles, that the inclination of the roof should = 34°. A diagram is subjoined.

On some new varieties of the Peach. By T. A. Knight, Esq. &c.—In the experiments here detailed, the object of the author was to obtain hardy early varieties; and he is encouraged to hope, even from the results of his present trials, that, in successive generations, the *Peach-tree* may be so hardened as to be naturalized to our climate.

We have thus distinctly, though briefly, noticed each paper in the Transactions of this recently-formed Society. Sir Joseph Banks, more than once, applies to it the epithet *useful*; and from these specimens it will be seen that it is an institution of some promise. It may be a means of stimulating exertions in this department of art; and by recording and diffusing the knowlege of hints which might otherwise have been lost, it may tend to render our gardens more beautiful, more various, and more productive. Under such an impression, we do not feel ourselves disposed to apologize for the length of this article; nor to withhold the expression of our hopes that the society will proceed with zeal in the prosecution of their researches.

Art. VII. *Observations on Madness and Melancholy*; including practical Remarks on those Diseases; together with Cases, and an Account of the morbid Appearances on Dissection. By John Haslam, late of Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and Apothecary to Bethlem Hospital. 2d Edition, considerably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 345. 9s. Boards. Callow. 1809.

THIS treatise was originally published about eleven years ago, and was noticed by us in one of our former volumes *:

* Vol. 29. N. S. p. 344.

but the present edition contains so much new matter, that we regard it as intitled to make its appearance a second time before our readers. Mr. Haslam formerly proposed a definition of insanity, to which we took the liberty of objecting, and we are happy to find that it is now withdrawn. He has also refrained from substituting any other in its place, and we think that he has done wisely; since it is certain that no definition, which has yet been proposed, has been found to attain the object of a definition; *i. e.* to give, in a few words, a description which shall include every mode of the thing defined, while it excludes every other object. This difficulty seems, at first view, not easy to explain; for we agree with the author that, notwithstanding the 'contrariety of sentiment that has prevailed concerning the precise meaning of the word madness, medical practitioners have been sufficiently reconciled as to the thing itself; so that when they have seen an insane person, however opposite their definitions, they have readily coincided that the patient was mad.' Mr. Haslam's conclusion is probably correct; 'that the thing itself is, generally speaking, sufficiently plain and intelligible; but that the term which represents the thing is obscure.' This sentiment he elucidates at some length, by critically examining the derivation and original import of the several terms which are now used to designate the different forms of insanity; and by shewing that, as applied to this disease, they are used metaphorically or analogically, and are, of course, liable to those inaccuracies which always attach to such modes of expression. So far we coincide with Mr. Haslam: but we cannot give our entire assent to a metaphysical speculation in which he afterward indulges himself. After having stated it as his opinion, that the human mind 'does not possess all the powers and faculties with which the pride of man has thought proper to invest it,' (an opinion which is probably correct,) he proceeds to the length, if we do not mistake his meaning, of denying to the mind *any* powers or faculties. His ground for this conclusion we shall give in his own words:

'If mind were actually capable of the operations attributed to it, and possessed of these powers, it would necessarily have been able to create a language expressive of these powers and operations. But the fact is otherwise. The language, which characterizes mind and its operations, has been borrowed from external objects; for mind has no language peculiar to itself.'

The answer to this argument appears to us most obvious; that, in the original formation of all languages, those things would first acquire names, which were the objects of the external senses; and it would not be until society had ad-

vanced to a state of considerable refinement, that man would have leisure to attend or give names to his internal feelings. At length, however, this state would arrive; and he would be obliged either to invent terms, or to borrow from the external world such words as seemed to bear some kind of analogical resemblance to what was passing within him. In all instances, the latter is the more easy and natural process; and so it was found on the present occasion. This circumstance has led us to the use of metaphorical terms in many cases, in which we have almost lost sight of the original source whence the metaphor was derived; and when we come to apply these terms to express any train of complicated events, we are frequently involved in obscurity. It would carry us too far to follow the author through all his attempts to shew the corporeal origin, if we may so call it, of many of the terms which are now almost exclusively applied to mental phænomena. Many of them are sufficiently obvious, and must be allowed to be just: but, though we should admit that association is derived from the operation of matching or assorting together similar or connected objects, and that reasoning 'in most languages strictly implies numeration, reckoning, and proportion,' yet we do not see how this can in any repect tend to prove that the mind is not possessed of the faculties of association and of reasoning.

To the practical part of his work, Mr. Haslam has added several new cases, and has by them still farther confirmed the fact which he formerly announced, that 'madness has always been connected with disease of the brain and of its membrane.' This we regard as a very important physiological discovery, and such as must eventually throw light on the treatment of insanity, although at present it does not appear that any practical advantage has been derived from it. Indeed, while we feel our obligation to Mr. H. for having ascertained the fact so clearly, we must observe that he has not perhaps made all the use of it which might have been expected from him. We may also remark that, considering the great opportunities for information which he possessed, we might have hoped that he would have attempted to investigate, with more accuracy than he has employed, the relative state of the different parts of the brain in the several varieties of the disease. It would have been satisfactory to have learned from him what had been the result of his inquiries on this point, even although they had been fruitless.

Perhaps no circumstance connected with insanity should more excite our interest than its causes; since, in proportion as its cure is difficult or uncertain, we should studiously avoid

any

any thing which may tend to its production. Mr. Haslam seems to have paid considerable attention to this subject, being fully aware of its importance; and we may therefore rest securely on his authority. He divides the causes into the two classes of physical and moral:

'Under the first, are comprehended repeated intoxication: blows received upon the head; fever, particularly when attended with delirium; mercury, largely and injudiciously administered; cutaneous eruptions repelled, and the suppression of periodical or occasional discharges and secretions; hereditary disposition, and paralytic affections.

'By the second class of causes, which have been termed *moral*, are meant those which are supposed to originate in the mind, or which are more immediately applied to it. Such are, the long endurance of grief; ardent and ungratified desires; religious terror; the disappointment of pride; sudden frights; fits of anger; prosperity humbled by misfortunes: in short, the frequent and uncurbed indulgence of any passion or emotion, and any sudden or violent affection of the mind.'

The author has accurately examined whether the effect of the lunar influence could be perceived in the state of his patients, and he decides in the negative. His conclusion respecting the hereditary propensity to the disease seems fully justified by experience; and he states 'that, where one of the parents has been insane, it is more than probable that the offspring will be similarly affected.'—We have already noticed the fact announced by Mr. H. that, in confirmed insanity, dissection has always shewn a morbid state of the brain and its membranes; and he now inquires whether this morbid state is to be regarded as the cause or the effect of the disease. He embraces the latter opinion, in which we are disposed to coincide with him; yet we must confess that "much may be said on both sides."

In the chapter intitled 'probable event of the disease,' we meet with many interesting particulars. Women, we learn, are more subject to the disease than men, nearly in the proportion of 5 to 4; a circumstance which seems in part to depend on the functions peculiar to the female sex. In the course of ten years, 80 patients came under Mr. Haslam's care, whose disease followed the puerperal state: but 50 of them were perfectly restored. The probability of recovery from insanity is greater in proportion to the youth of the patient: but it is remarked that, at any age, the prospect of recovery is very small, after the disease has continued for any length of time. It most frequently makes its appearance between the ages of 30 and 40.—On the subject of *religious*

madness, we meet with some remarks which we consider as too important to be withholden from our readers:

'What can be expected, when the most ignorant of our race attempt to inform the multitude; when the dregs of society shall assume the garb of sanctity and the holy office; and pretend to point out a privy path to heaven, or cozen their feeble followers into the belief that they possess a picklock for its gates? The difficulty of curing this species of madness will be readily explained from the consideration, that the whole of their doctrine is a base system of delusion, rivetted on the mind by terror and despair; and there is also good reason to suppose, that they frequently contrive, by the grace of cordials, to fix the waverings of belief, and thus endeavour to dispel the gloom and dejection which these hallucinations infallibly excite.

'Although the faction of faith will owe me no kindness for the disclosure of these opinions, yet it would be ungrateful were I to shrink from the avowal of my obligations to methodism for the supply of those numerous cases which have constituted my experience of this wretched calamity.'

Mr. Haslam's observations on the management of the insane are very generally deserving of attention, although we are not aware that any of them can be regarded as either new or peculiar. We regret that he has chosen to indulge in a long train of sarcastic abuse of Dr. Cox. If Dr. C. has committed any errors, or fallen into any absurdities, it was surely more for the interest of science that they should be pointed out in a serious and candid manner; and certainly his proposal of the horizontal swing is not so palpably ridiculous as to merit no farther trial or consideration.—With respect to the remedies for insanity, the principal circumstances noticed by Mr. Haslam, which can be considered as adding to our knowlege on the subject, are that insane persons are not particularly constipated, or difficult to be purged, though in some cases their stomach and bowels are found to be more than usually inert: but that when this disposition takes place, the removal of the constipation brings back the healthy state of the digestive organs. Mr. H. is not friendly to the administration of emetics; nor does any article of the *materia medica* appear to have a specific salutary power over insanity.

As to the general merits of this production, we are disposed to estimate them highly. Though it cannot be considered as in every part equally satisfactory, nor to be as perfect as perhaps the author, by a little more attention, might have made it, yet we regard it as on the whole the most useful treatise that has been published on this melancholy topic.

Art.

ART. VIII. *Essay on Warm and Vapor Baths*; with Hints for a new Mode of applying Heat and Cold, for the Cure of Disease, and the Preservation of Health. Illustrated by Cases. By Edward Kentish, M. D. Physician to the Bristol Dispensary. 8vo. pp. 114. 4s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1809.

THE subject of bathing, medically considered, is not only interesting and important, but it has occasioned much diversity of opinion in this country; and it is so connected with false hypothesis, that some acuteness is requisite to ascertain the real value of the experience which we possess respecting it. Several of our medical philosophers, among whom the late Dr. Currie holds a high rank, have contributed materially to elucidate the effects of temperature on the living body; a question which must be solved, before we can obtain any certainty respecting the operation of the warm bath in the cure of disease; but, without detracting from the merit of either Dr. Currie or his contemporaries, it may be remarked that they rather opened the path for future investigation, than arrived at absolute certainty on the several disputable points which fell under their consideration. We may indeed go farther, and assert that, in the present state of physiological knowlege, many questions which are involved in this discussion can be answered only imperfectly; and that the utmost which we can expect, from those who undertake to illustrate this subject, is that they should diligently collect facts, and, separating them as much as possible from all extraneous matter, should store them up, in order that at some future period, when they shall be sufficiently multiplied, a more regular system may be formed from them.

We cannot, however, compliment Dr. Kentish on the success with which he has treated the question. Many of the remarks which he brings forwards are common-place and trifling; hypothesis and fact are indiscrimately blended together; and the effects of the warm bath are magnified to such an extravagant degree as to produce scepticism rather than conviction. The volume commences with a description of the baths that have been used by different nations, particularly by the antient Romans, by the Russians, and the Turks; among whom the practice of bathing has been carried to the greatest extent, both as a remedy for disease and as a luxurious gratification. To a person who is totally unacquainted with the subject, some little amusement may be afforded by these details: but they contain nothing that has not been often repeated before, or that might not be obtained from the most obvious sources.—Chapter 4th presents the author more in the

the character of an original writer; and here he undertakes to give an account of the functions of the skin. The consideration of these functions occupies, however, a small part of the chapter which bears this title; and we must confess that the few remarks which are offered do not impress us with a very favourable opinion of Dr. K.'s acquirements. He observes that, as the vapor bath has an extensive influence on cutaneous diseases, 'it may be necessary to take a cursory view of that most important and extended organ the skin;' and this organ, as it is called, is thus described. 'This integument, which covers the whole body, is formed by the minute terminations of all the superficial and exhalant arteries, nerves, veins, and absorbents of the system; this is covered by the colouring, or blushing membrane, and defended from the too rude impressions of external agents by the scarfskin.' Our medical readers will immediately perceive the errors which enter into this description. Although arteries, veins, nerves, and absorbents, may have their termination in the skin, they do not compose its substance; the basis of the skin, as is well known, is a membranous body, consisting of condensed cellular matter; and as to the colouring or blushing membrane, we acknowlege that we are ignorant of its existence. We are next told that 'the principal use of the skin is to carry off from the system the redundant heat and moisture.' Now, though we believe that this operation may be performed at the surface of the body, by vessels which pass through the skin, yet this is clearly not the office of the skin itself, but of the secreting and exhaling organs which pass through it; the use of the skin, properly so called, is very different: but to give support to the perspiratory vessels may indeed be one of the accessory purposes which it serves.

In the course of this chapter, the author remarks, and with justice, that in cases in which sweating is to be produced, it would be better to effect this object by means of external heat, applied under the form of the warm or vapor-bath, than by the administration of what are called sudorific medicines; which produce perspiration in a less direct way, and probably may have the effect of weakening the stomach. We cannot, however, keep pace with Dr. Kentish, when he proceeds to assert positively that the operation of mercury consists in its 'increasing all the secretions;' and when, assuming this as a settled point, he argues from it that, in those diseases in which mercury is employed, half the quantity usually administered might be spared, by conjoining it with the warm bath.

We have before noticed that Dr. K. falls into the common error, of attempting to excite the interest of the reader in behalf

behalf of his favourite remedy by exaggerating its effects; and in proof of our assertion we shall make a quotation which, our readers will perceive, refers to the frequent use of the warm bath by the Russians:

'It is not to be doubted that the Russians owe their *longevity*, their *robust* state of health, their little disposition to certain *mortal* diseases, and their *happy* and *cheerful* temper, mostly to these Baths. The perspiration, the most *important* of all secretions, must continually go on better in a body constantly kept soft by bathing. A great number of impurities which, privily, lay in us the train to tedious and dangerous distempers, are timely removed, ere they poison the blood and the juices. All exanthematic diseases are abated by bathing: consequently, then, the small-pox; and if this dreadful disorder be actually less fatal in Russia than in other countries, this phænomenon needs not to be attributed to any other cause than their great use of Vapour-Baths.'

Of a publication by the Honourable Basil Cochrane, in reference to the subject here discussed, some report will be found in the Catalogue part of this Review.

ART. IX. *Institutes of Biblical Criticism;* or, Heads of the Course of Lectures, on that Subject, read in the University and King's College of Aberdeen. By Gilbert Gerard, D.D., Professor of Divinity, and one of His Majesty's Chaplains in Ordinary for Scotland. 8vo. pp. 471. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1808.

WHEN comparisons are made between the three learned professions, it is not unusual to hear the remark that abilities and extensive knowlege are necessary to make a good physician or a good lawyer, but that "any thing will do for a parson." We notice this vulgar error in order to remonstrate against and to correct it. Abundantly more is requisite to the endowment of a well-informed and sound theologian, than is generally supposed not only by the people at large, but even by those who become candidates for the sacred ministry. The clergyman who is anxious to be erudite, to trace to its original sources the divine fountain of which he is to dispense the waters, and to pursue the several ramifications of biblical criticism, in order to qualify himself for the complete illustration of the Holy Scriptures, must be a laborious and persevering student; and he must embrace a compass of literature which is not necessary in other professional walks. So far from saying that any body will do for the pulpit, we should rather adopt the language of St. Paul, with reference to the duties of the sacred office, "*Who is sufficient for these things?*" and we should

should say this not merely in regard to the discharge of the clerical office, but even with respect to the qualifications for the profession.

Scarcely at any period was it more necessary than it is at present to offer this observation; and if we wanted an illustration of its justice, we could not find one more suited to our purpose than this volume of Institutes of Biblical Criticism: which affords at once a view of the very wide field over which the able Christian theologian must range. He who consults these pages will perceive the folly of those who decry human learning in matters of religion, and the stupidity of encouraging uneducated persons to declaim from the pulpit as expositors of scripture. Whoever adverts to the history, geography, and chronology of our religion, — to the dispensation from which it emanates, — to the age and country in which it was first preached, — to the manner in which it has descended to our times, — to the languages in which the books that must be the guide of our faith and practice were originally written, — to the several versions into which they have at different eras been rendered, — to the state of antient MSS. — to the works of the Fathers and ecclesiastical historians, — to the labours of commentators, — to the controversies which have agitated the church, — and to many other branches of inquiry, that are essentially involved in the occupation of a biblical student, — will not need to be told how very laborious must be the task of that divine, who is bent on examining fully and deeply for himself; and how deplorably inadequate those men are to correctly appreciate the scope and explain the contents of the O. and N. T., who scarcely know even their own mother-tongue.

It is not impossible that the representation which we have given may operate to discourage some indolent and unanimated clergymen from the critical study of the Scriptures: but let us add that, though the task be arduous, yet, if it be commenced with right views and pursued with a suitable spirit, it will amply repay for all the toil which it imposes. A biblical student acquires a very comprehensive knowlege of the most curious as well as the most interesting of all compositions; he is not obliged to take the sense of the Scriptures on the authority of others; he proceeds *ad integros fontes*; he feels the beauty and the force of scripture-language; and he resolves many of the difficulties which puzzle and confound others. In fine, he will be "*able to give a reason for the hope that is in him*," and will build his faith on the noblest and surest ground.

As a *carte du pays*, this volume of Institutes is of great value; and while it displays the learning and acumen of Professor

fessor Gerard, it affords more than a thousand hints to the student *. The theological lecturer, also, will prize it as a text-book; to which use the author himself has applied it. The illustrative criticisms are drawn from the best sources; and the information which is communicated, though displayed with all possible conciseness, is the result of much application and extensive research.

By way of Introduction, Dr. G. lays down the following data:

'1. As the Christian religion is of divine authority, and as the Scriptures are the authentic record and revelation of it, every Christian, and especially every Christian teacher, is concerned to understand the Scriptures, and obliged to study them with care.

'2. The importance of understanding the Scriptures has never been denied, though the means of attaining to it have not always been sufficiently attended to, even in the schools of Theology.

'3. The Scriptures can be understood, only by being studied and interpreted according to the genuine principles of criticism; and a regular deduction of these principles, illustrated by examples, seems to be the best method that can be taken for assisting students in the study of the Scriptures.

'4. It is from the Scripture, rightly understood, that all just opinions in religion are to be derived; but misinterpretation of it is the certain cause of error.'

After these preliminary observations, the author proceeds to a division of his subject into two distinct heads; part I. including *the sources of Biblical Criticism*, and part II. *the objects of Scripture Criticism.* Under the first general division, he notices, in eight separate chapters,—the Manuscripts and Editions of the Books of Scripture,—the Oriental Languages,—the Kindred Languages,—the Versions,—the Circumstances relating to the Books of Scripture,—the Comparison of Scripture with itself,—the History and Manners of the Age and Country to which Scripture-History refers,—and the Opinions and Learning subservient to its Elucidation.

Among the *objects* of Scripture Criticism, are enumerated, in the same number of chapters,—Corrective or Emendatory Criticism,—the Explication of separate Words,—the Explication of Combinations of Words,—Difficulties in the Circumstances relating to the Books of Scripture,—reconciling Scripture with itself,—seeming Contradictions to Reason and Morality,—seeming Contradictions to History and Matters of Facts,—and complicated Difficulties. Each of these chapters is moreover subdivided into distinct sections.

* The remarks of Dr. G. are numbered, and form above 1200 separate paragraphs.

On

On the subject of MSS., and the necessity of correcting the printed editions by MSS., many important remarks occur; and the Professor is of opinion that 'a much more correct edition of the Scriptures than any extant may be obtained.'

In favour of the Samaritan Pentateuch, which is an independent copy of the original Hebrew text, Dr. G. adduces several various readings to prove that 'the Samaritan seems to be, and, on several accounts, may naturally be expected to be, preserved more correct than the Hebrew; and therefore will supply many emendations or preferable readings.'

In order to give the student some knowlege respecting the language of the N. T., these hints are offered:

'In the language of the New Testament, all the dialects occur; but the attic is predominant, and runs through all the books of it.

'Wyttenbach. Dissert. Sacra.

'But, the writers of the New Testament being Jews, would, in writing Greek, naturally run into the idioms of their own language, or introduce hebraisms or syriasms; which have, however, been, without reason, denied by some, and reckoned much more numerous than they really are, by others.

'Pfochenii Diatrib. de Linguæ N. T. Puritate.
Feehtii Præf. in Raphel. Michael. ib. § 7—10.
Macknight, ib. Marsh's Michael. ch. 4. § 5, 6.

'Such idioms can be illustrated only from the oriental languages, the study of which is thus strongly recommended, as being necessary even for understanding the New Testament; and from the version of the 70, which is written in the same idiom.

'There are in the New Testament, some Hebrew and Syriac words.

'Michael. ib. § 6.
(Heb.) Αμην, "truly, so be it." Glass. Philol. l. 3. t. 5. can. 16. Heylin. Theolog. Lect. p. 131.
Αλληλουια, "Praise the Lord." Glass, ib.
Ζιζανια, "Tares."
(Syr.) Μαμωνας, "riches," Erasm. Drus. Grot.
Μαραν' αθα. Some, "The Lord is come;" others, "In the coming of the Lord;" others, "Excommunicated in the highest sense," which was termed שמתא; others, in general, "Devoted to destruction."
Critici in 1 Cor. xvi. 22. Tremell. Vorstius. Locke. Macknight.'

From this passage, we must perceive the great importance of the Oriental languages to the biblical scholar; and the subsequent remarks of the Professor, with his illustrations, will place this matter in a still stronger light:

'The kindred languages afford the best (and where the ancient versions vary in translating them, the only) means of determining with

with certainty, the signification of such words as occur but once, or very seldom, in the Bible.

"The kindred languages point out the true meaning of some words, whether primitives or derivatives, to which wrong significations have been affixed in the Bible.

Isai. xviii. 2. "Whose lands the rivers בזאו;" supposed irregular for בזון, (which is found in one MS.) Eng. "have spoiled;" but this irregularity unexampled. (Schult Gram. p. 494.) Arab. בזא, "to lift itself up, to bring under it." Hence, "have brought under them," or "overflowed." But בזא Syr. and בזיא Chald. signifies "a teat;" so that the verb may mean, "have nourished;" very applicable to the Nile fertilizing Egypt.

Lowth's Isaiah in loc.

"The kindred languages enable us to discover all the senses of words, some of whose significations only have been collected from the Bible, though others of them would better suit particular passages; and, by this means, both explain these passages, and illustrate the connection between roots and their derivatives.

"In particular, these languages discover the primary signification of many roots, even such as are most commonly used, whose secondary senses alone have been attended to, though the primary sense would throw light on some texts.

גדל very common, rendered "to be great." But Arab. (prim.) "to twist." Hence גדילים Deut. xxii. 12. "fringes." 1 Kings vii. 17. "chain-work," i. e. twisted threads.

(Sec.) 1. "Sinewy, brawny, compact, elegant," in the human make. Exod. xv. 16. "By the greatness (brawniness, firmness) of thine arm, they shall be as still as a stone."

2. "To struggle, wrestle, fight." Job vii. 17. "What is man that thou shouldst *magnify* (struggle) with him?"—context.

Schultens, Defect. ling. Heb. § 202, &c.

צדק very common, "to be just;" but this only a secondary sense. Arab. (prim.) "To be stiff, inflexible;" also "to be inflexibly straight." Hence metaphorically, "to be just, true." Isa. xlix. 24. "Shall שבי צדיק (literally) the captives of *the just one* be delivered?" but the devil is here meant. Eng. "the *lawful* captive;" but this would be unjust. "The captives of the *inflexible*, rigid, or inexorable one."

Schultens, ib. § 217, &c.

Eccles. vii. 16. "Be not *righteous* overmuch."—objectionable. "Be not too rigid or inflexible."

Schultens, ib. Hammond, Grotius, Patrick, and others, in loco."

Out

Our readers will recollect the observations of Dr. Paley *, on Eccles. vii. 16. He would probably have subscribed to this version of it.—It is the opinion of the Professor that 'the Greek version of the LXX. was one of the principal means of recovering the Hebrew language; and that it often gives a juster sense of Scripture, than what is generally put on them.' He instances Gen. vi. 3.; which is given by the LXX. "My Spirit shall not always *remain*" (*καταμεινη*); instead of *strive*, as in our version. We shall add, also, that the difference of reading in the LXX. version is often striking; and we need only refer to Ps. lxxxiv. 6., where (not to notice other dissonances) instead of "*the rain also filleth the pools*," we read "*the Lawgiver will give blessings*;" *ὑπομνησις δωσει ὁ νομοθετων*; which the Vulgate literally renders "*Benedictionem dabit Legislator.*"—Protestants are apt to undervalue the Vulgate: but Dr. G. remarks in its favour that 'it is, in general, skilful and faithful, and often gives the sense of Scripture better than more modern versions.'

As an inducement to the consultation of the Syriac version, this notice may suffice:

'The Syriac version being very literal, ascertains clearly the readings which it followed; by reason of its antiquity, it gives great authority to these readings; and it has preserved some which appear to be genuine.

Walton, Prol. 13. § 19. Marsh's Michael. ib. sect. 9.
2 Sam. xv. 7. "After *forty* years Absalom said." From what?—Syr. "four." supported by Vulg. in several MSS. and Sixtus's edit. of Joseph. Ant. 7. 9. Grot. in loc.
Ken. Diss. 2. p. 357. Diss. Gen. § 31. p. 46. n.

'Prov. xxvi. 4, 5. "Answer not a fool according to his folly, lest thou also be like unto him. Answer a fool *according to his folly*, lest he be wise in his own conceit." Contradictory—no reason.—Syr. "*According to thine own wisdom.*" So Chald. כאולתיך repeated from the preceding line.
Ken. ib. p. 359.'

Respecting the antient versions in general, this principle is laid down;

'Being the works of men who had several advantages above the moderns for understanding the original languages, and the phraseology of Scripture; and those of the Old Testament, in particular, being one of the principal means by which the knowledge of the Hebrew was recovered, and by more careful attention to which, it might be rendered still more perfect; there can be no doubt but they

* See our account of his Sermons in the Review for September last.

generally

generally give us the true sense of Scripture, and that often in places where we could scarcely have discovered it by any other means.'

Many judicious rules are given for the comparison of parallel passages, from which we can copy only these specimens:

'The signification of words and phrases ought to be taken from those places, in which it is ascertained by the connection, or the nature of the subject; and accordingly interpreted in places where there is nothing that can thus ascertain it.'

'Eccles. xi. 1. "Cast thy *bread*" (לחמך) or "corn," (Ruth i. 6. Isa. xxviii. 28.) "upon the waters," (מהימם) or "moist ground," (Isa. xv. 6 xxx. 23. xxxii. 20. Jer xlviii. 34.) "and after many days thou shalt find it." connection. v. 4, 6. beautiful, and a strong argument.'

'When a word is used sometimes in a literal, and sometimes in a metaphorical sense, it must not be supposed that it implies, in the latter case, all that it implies in the former case; similitude, in some one respect, being sufficient for the propriety of metaphor.

'It is particularly absurd, and of pernicious consequence, to deduce articles of faith from metaphorical expressions, supposed to be meant in all the strictness of their literal sense.'—

'It is not from one such passage, taken singly, that a doctrine or precept ought to be collected, as has been too often the practice; but, from them all, taken in conjunction, consistently explained, with such limitations of the expressions in each, as the rest shew to be necessary.'

In Part II., the kinds of false readings are largely discussed, and arranged under distinct heads with explanatory instances; and rules for judging concerning false readings are subjoined. Readings are divided into four classes: 1. *Certainly genuine*; 2. *Probably genuine*; 3. *Dubious*; 4. *Certainly wrong*, or probably wrong. This chapter concludes with remarks on a passage which has of late years occasioned much controversy, and which by most modern critics is placed in the last of these classes. Dr. G. cautiously refrains from giving any opinion, though he furnishes ample references:

'Readings, certainly or very probably false, ought to be expunged from the editions of the Scriptures, and departed from in versions of them, however long and generally they have usurped a place there, as being manifest corruptions, which impair the purity of the sacred books.

'Among texts, the true reading of which is controverted, the most remarkable in several respects is 1 John v. 7, 8. where the words, ἐν τῇ γραφῇ, ὁ πατὴρ, ὁ λογος, καὶ τὸ ἅγιον πνευμα, καὶ οὗτοι οἱ τρεις ἐν εισι· καὶ τρεις εισιν οἱ μαρτυροῦντες ἐν τῇ γῇ, are by some held to be genuine, and by others to be spurious; and all the kinds of evidence, both external and internal, having been urged on both sides, it is only by a fair comparison of them all, that it can be determined, in which of the four classes this reading ought to be placed.'

On the signification of words and the usages of nouns, verbs, and particles;—on syntax, idioms, phrases, and figures,—numerous hints are suggested: but, though we admit the justice of the remarks, we cannot, in every instance, subscribe to the explanation of the passage which is quoted as an illustration. At p. 376, Dr. G. very justly observes that 'a difficulty sometimes arises from pronouns referring, not to the nearer, but to the remoter antecedent;' and he instances Heb. xii. 17.

"Though he sought *it* (αυτην) earnestly with tears."—to the nearest antecedent μετανοια—"his own repentance." Clar. and perhaps Eng.—or "good effects of repentance" did not profit him. Zeger. Cast. Grot.—or, "his father's repentance," J. Capel.—or, to remoter antecedent ευλογιαν, "his father's blessing." Glass. Gen. xxvii. 34.'

Μετανοια does not in this place signify what is commonly understood by *Repentance*, and the difficulty of the passage results from this circumstance. A note subjoined by Hutchinson to the Cyropædia, Cap. I. *in initio*, clearly illustrates the point:

"Μετανοειν *proprie est* Sententiam mutare, aliter, quam antea, judicare; *adeoque, cùm* μετανοια *ipsa nihil aliud sumet quàm* mutatio sententiæ, *observare licet Anglicanos interpretes Apostoli verba* Heb. xii. 17, *minus rectè reddidisse. Ibi enim vox* μετανοια *non* pœnitentiam, *quasi Esavo negatam, sed Isaaci retractationem frustra quæsitam, denotat: ut hic sit loci sensus, Esavi neque precibus neque lacrymis Isaacum permoveri potuisse, ut quæ modò Jacobo promiserat, ea jam beneficia in ipsum transferenda revocaret.*"

This being clearly the sense of the passage, no doubt can exist respecting the antecedent to which the pronoun αυτην refers.

The difficulties specified in the latter chapters of this work are discussed with a degree of brevity which is not satisfactory: but perhaps the author enlarged more on these points in his lectures, and thought that he should make his volume too bulky if he suffered himself to launch out into laboured discussion. The whole is terminated with this judicious and temperate address to his pupils:

'The subject which I have now brought to a conclusion, naturally leads me to recommend to you the study of the Scriptures, as your principal employment. They are the only pure sources of theological knowledge. Could we understand them perfectly, our knowledge would be complete, and free from error. If we study them with care, we cannot fail to acquire all necessary knowledge, and to escape every dangerous error. Theology, derived immediately from them, will be simple, and wholly practical. If you would understand them, read them in the original languages, and be at pains to qualify

qualify yourselves for doing so. Take the assistance of versions, but rest not in them; compare them with one another, and with the original. Take the assistance of commentators, but follow them not implicitly. When they are so very numerous, it is astonishing that so little can be learned from them; one copies merely from another. You may be satisfied with a few of the best; it would be waste of time to attempt consulting them all. The best of them often dwell on what has little difficulty, or is of little moment; and, points on which you would wish most to be satisfied, you will often find passed over by them all. The best have their prejudices and nostrums; and, for supporting them, distort and wrest many passages. Often you will find light from critical essays on particular texts, when general and voluminous commentators afford you none. Let not your explications be dictated by your accidental present notions; but founded on, and tried by, well-established general principles of sound criticism. It is for assisting you in discovering these, that the view which I have given, both of the Sources and of the Objects of Scripture Criticism, is intended. Above all, fix a proper and upright aim in studying the Scriptures. Your sole aim should be, to discover the real sense of every passage, and to express it fairly and distinctly. The real sense of a passage is, not any sense which the words will bear, nor any sense which is true in itself; but only that which was intended by the writer in that particular passage. You should endeavour to exhaust the full sense of a passage, but without unduly stretching it, or finding more in it than was intended. Avoid an ostentation of learning, in explaining Scripture. Never affect certainty and decisiveness, where the sense is doubtful. Take care not to overlook the obvious meaning of texts, in searching for ingenious, far-fetched, or mystical meanings. Read the Scripture, not with a view to support your own preconceived opinions from it, or to stretch, or explain it away, so as to agree with them; but lay aside all prejudices, that, by reading it, you may perceive how far your opinions need to be corrected. Be not prepossessed in favour of any sense, merely because it is the most received, the most approved, or the most popular. Be not biassed, by your particular turn and temper, to adopt the sense which is most agreeable to them. Especially reject all such loose interpretations as would favour vice. If you cannot clear up the more difficult parts of Scripture, make yourselves well acquainted with the plain parts of it; imbibe their purifying spirit, and be careful to act agreeably to them.'

Throughout every part of the preceding Institutes, the sentiments recommended in this concluding exhortation are displayed. With all his learning, Dr. Gerard is not dogmatical: but his object is to promote a critical examination of the Scriptures, in order that their meaning may be ascertained, as well as their authenticity established; and that the doctrines and duties of our religion, being clearly displayed, may more powerfully operate as a rule of life.

ART. X. *Letters between the Rev. James Granger, M. A.* Rector of Shiplake, and many of the most eminent literary Men of his Time; composing a copious History and Illustration of his *Biographical History of England*. With Miscellanies, and Notes of Tours in France, Holland, and Spain; by the same Gentleman. Edited by J. P. Malcolm, Author of *Londinium Redivivum*, from the Originals in the Possession of Mr. W. Richardson. 8vo. pp. 550. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS volume makes us acquainted with the course by which that truly valuable work, the *Biographical History of England* *, attained the perfection and accuracy which so eminently distinguish it. The present compilation, as the editor remarks, cannot fail to be received as a valuable accompaniment to that performance, the correctness of which it so strongly attests: but this is by no means its only praise; it boasts of independent value, and is in itself highly amusing and informing. Numerous anecdotes of a very curious nature, several of which are not to be found in any of the modern collections, are interspersed among these letters. Something of the intrigues of authorship, also, and of the remuneration on which it may reckon, may be learned from them.

Mr. Granger had pointed out, perhaps rather unadvisedly, some faults in the "Historic Doubts:" but how haughtily and resentfully must the service have been received, to depress the pen of Granger to the degree which we perceive in the last of the following letters to Mr. Walpole:

"Honoured Sir,

"I believe there was never yet an infallible author, or a book published without an error. I have, even in your Works, where I least expected to find any, met with here and there one. May I, Sir, take the liberty (with all humility I ask it) to mention them, as they may be corrected in a table of errata, or in a subsequent edition? It was with the greatest difficulty I prevailed upon myself to use this freedom, which perhaps may be thought a preposterous way of expressing my great veneration for the Author of the Anecdotes; but, if I have done wrong, it was from an error of judgment, not from any fault of my will. I, indeed, very naturally concluded that what would be the greatest condescension in you, with respect to my blundering performance, would be the height of presumption in me with regard to your work; which, notwithstanding a few escapes, is, among its other excellencies, to be admired for its correctness.

"But Tom Pidgeon, my parish clerk, got the better of this reasoning: he told me, the other day, before the congregation, that I had named the wrong Psalm; such is my love of truth, that, though Tom is a great blunderer himself, I could not find in my heart to be angry with him. This incident at once overcame my

* See Rev. Vols. 41, 52, and 54.

timidity,

timidity, and I reasoned thus with myself. Surely Mr. Walpole, as the disparity is greater betwixt us, will no more be displeased with me, than I was with Tom Pidgeon.

"I have, together with the errata, taken occasion to mention a few other particulars, as they occurred to me. I hope, Sir, you will not think of returning the prints, which are much at your service.

"I am, &c.

JAMES GRANGER."

'That Mr. Granger had nearly marred his preferment with this ill-advised list of errata, and "other particulars," may be inferred from his answer to Mr. Walpole's letter, written in return to the above.

"Honoured Sir,

"I return you a thousand and a thousand thanks for your last letter. The excellence of your understanding, and the goodness and gentleness of your nature, are apparent in every line of it. For this and your other favours, which are all of an extraordinary kind, I shall ever love, esteem, and honour you. Permit me, good and worthy Sir, to assure you, that not a syllable of that impertinent letter, to which you vouchsafed me an answer, was dictated by spleen or resentment; it was the effect of timidity, and I fear a little unsubdued vanity, which was scarce known to myself. I shall endeavour to root out every fibre of these ill weeds from my nature, as, if they are permitted to grow, they will not only render me unhappy, but ridiculous; though I am more in danger of vanity than ever, from your abundant candour in favour of my work. I hope, Sir, that you will, as you see occasion, continue to inform me of my errors of any kind. I shall ever listen to you with the utmost attention; and thank and bless you, for your kind and gentle reproofs. That every blessing, here and hereafter, may attend you, is the ardent wish and prayer of,

"Honoured Sir, &c.

JAMES GRANGER."

Nothing shews more strongly the merit of Mr. Granger's work, than the circumstance of its engaging equal respect and countenance from persons of all parties. Mr. Davies, his bookseller, in one of his letters to him, thus writes;

"Mr. Hollis called on me about a week after you left London. He promises to do all in his power to serve you; but you must never expect to find him at home, without first leaving your name at his house, and giving him a previous notice of three or four days.

"Mr. Gough, who wrote the 'Topographical Anecdotes,' may be of service to you. George Steevens, Esq. has promised to point out some necessary additions *to*, and corrections *of*, your History; you may direct a letter for him to be left at my house; he is a little volatile, and the compliment of begging his assistance may possibly fix him."

Mr. Granger having been indebted to Mr. West in the execution of his work, the editor has been induced to give the following account of that gentleman:

'James West, M. A. of Baliol College, Oxford, was M. P. for St. Alban's, and a joint Secretary of the Treasury: he was patronized by the Duke of Newcastle, who has been rendered so ridiculous as a politician in one of Smollett's works; however, he gave Mr. West substantial proofs of his ability in serving a friend, by obtaining for him a pension of 2000l. per annum. Mr. West was a Vice-president of the Society of Antiquaries; Treasurer, and afterwards President, of the Royal Society: he died July 2, 1772. His residence was the now magnificent hotel, at the West end of the Piazza, Covent-garden. The sale of his books lasted 24 days, prints 13, coins and medals 7, plate and various articles of curiosity 7, paintings, drawings, and framed prints 4.'

Of the correspondents of Mr. Granger whose communications are here given, the principal are the late Dutchess of Portland, Lord Orford, Sir John Fenn, the Rev. John Bowle, Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq., Rev. Sir John Cullum, Mr. Huddesford, Mr. Sturges, Mr. Hammond, Dr. Lort, Rev. John Disney, Richard Gough, Esq., Dr. Ducarel, Rev. William Cole, Lord Holland, &c. In this enumeration, Mr. Davies, his bookseller, ought not to be passed over; since his letters are not only creditable to his frankness and liberality as a man of business, but possess as much interest as any in the collection. He is called, in a letter from Mr. John Campbell, "a gentleman dealing in books;" and it is to be regretted that his liberality met not with better reward.

We must not attempt to make many selections from the numerous anecdotes which abound in this work, and must be contented with advising our readers to consult the volume itself. Though the concluding part of it consists of scraps and shreds, it will still be seen that they attest the excellent judgment and fine *tact* of Mr. Granger. Two or three specimens will give the reader some idea of the sort of entertainment which they supply.

'The greatest number of Roman dramatic writers, &c. flourished betwixt the end of the first and the third Punic wars.

'They were Livius, Andronicus, Nævius, Ennius, Pacuvius, Accius, Cæcilius, Plautus, Afranius, Terentius, Lucilius.

'Polybius was one of the first that introduced the Grecian learning, who with about one thousand others came to Italy about U. C. 587.

'The Roman youth in Cato's time were so charmed with the harangues of Carneades, Critolam, and Diogenes, that they had from that time a most vehement desire to the Grecian literature, which Cato did all he could to discourage. These orators pleaded before the

the senate, for the mitigation of a fine imposed on the Athenians, for taking Oropses in Bœotia.

'Mummius, upon the taking of Corinth, told the servants who carried the fine pictures and statues taken there, that, if they lost any, they should find some one in their room.

'Scipio Æmylius was intimate with Panætius Primus of the Stoicks, and with Polybius and Terence.

'After Cato's death, learning encreased, and the art of luxury, &c.

'Soon after, Crassus and Antony, two great orators, flourished, who were succeeded by Sulpitius, Cotta, and Hortensius.

'Sylla was a man of letters; but Marius illiterate, and a discourager of learning.

'Lucullus, one of the greatest scholars of his time. He succeeded Sylla, and was deprived of his command by Pompey.

'Soon after, Cicero brought the Roman eloquence to its highest pitch.

'In the characters of Cicero and Atticus we see the most excellent patterns of the public and retired life.

'Crassus, Pompey, Anthony, Cæsar, Cato, and Brutus, were the most refined scholars of their age.

'Brutus epitomized Polybius, and employed himself about it the very day before the battle of Philippi.

'Augustus excelled in almost all kinds of polite learning. He wrote the History of his own Life, an exhortation to Philosophy, a book of Hexameters. And Livy wrote in the Augustan age.

'Tiberius, Claudius, and Nero, affected learning; but in Tiberius's time it began to decline.

'Tacitus, Suetonius, and Pliny, flourished in Trajan's time; as did Plutarch. Soon after, Quintilian.

'Sir William Temple observes, that all the Latin books till the end of Trajan's time, and all the Greek till the end of M. Antoninus's reign, have a true value. He says, that the purity of the Latin tongue ended with Paterculus.

'In the next age to Trajan, Learning continued more and more to decline, till it was at last quite extinct by the irruption of barbarous nations.

'Cornelia, Aurelia, and Actia, mothers of the Gracchi, Julius Cæsar, and Augustus, are reported to have undertaken the office of governesses to noblemen's children. They took care that nothing should be said or done before them to corrupt their minds, and were particularly cautious to speak their language in its greatest purity.

'The Roman masters of eloquence made it a frequent practice to translate the most eminent Greek orators, as Lysias, Hyperides, Æschines, Demosthenes. The Roman youths not only declaimed under their masters, but even after they had gained a considerable name in the Forum.

'They recited their Poems, &c. to a select company of friends, and sometimes before a more numerous audience.'—

'In Pliny's Natural History we find a curious receipt for making the Roman Friendship; a cordial that was universally esteemed in

those days, and very few families of any credit were without it. Pliny says, that they were indebted to the Greeks for this receipt, who had it in the greatest perfection.

'The old Roman Friendship was a composition of several ingredients, of which the principal was Union of hearts (a fine flower, that grew in several parts of that empire), sincerity, frankness, disinterestedness, pity, tenderness, of each an equal quantity; these all mixed up together with two rich oils, which they called perpetual kind wishes, and serenity of temper. The whole was strongly perfumed with the desire of pleasing which gave it a most grateful smell: it was a sure restorative in all sorts of vapours. The cordial thus prepared was of so durable a nature, that no length of time could corrupt it; and what is very remarkable, says our author, it increased in weight and value the longer you kept it.

'The moderns have greatly adulterated this fine receipt; some of the ingredients are not now to be found; but what they impose on you for Friendship is as follows: outward profession, a common weed that grows every where, instead of the flower of Union; a desire of being pleased, a large quantity of self-interest, convenience, and reservedness, many handfuls; a little of pity and tenderness (but some pretend to make it up without any of these two last), and the common oil of inconstancy, which, like our linseed oil, is cold-drawn every hour, and serves to mix them together. Most of these ingredients being of a perishable nature, it will not keep, and shews itself to be counterfeit, by lessening in weight and value.'

For the use of the partisans of "No Popery," we transcribe a passage from Mr. Granger's notes of his Tour in Holland.

'Christians of every denomination have their places of public worship at Amsterdam; as, Brownists, Famists, Anabaptists, Arminians.

'Calvinists only possess the public Churches, and they only have their ministers maintained by the publick. The Arminians are rather a party in the State than a Sect in Religion.

'Religion in Holland never made a cloak for any ambitious or interested design; but all go on very easily in their own way, without the least breach of friendship and good neighbourhood, &c. In short, they live together like citizens of the world.

'Though the Dutch are supposed to have more shipping than all the world besides; yet the materials of their ships are none of them of their own growth. Their native commodities are only cheese, butter, and earthen ware.'

If our sage rulers would so order things, that what is here predicated of the Dutch might be said of our fellow subjects of both islands, the British empire might then indeed defy its powerful and ever vigilant enemy!

We must not conclude without making our acknowlegements to Mr. Malcolm, for the service which he has rendered to the public, by rescuing from oblivion the interesting remains

which now lie before us: but we cannot say that the arrangement and mode of printing them are always the most lucid. The Index, also, should have been alphabetical.

ART. XI. *A Biographical History of England*, from the Revolution to the end of George I.'s Reign, being a Continuation of the Rev. J. Granger's Work; consisting of Characters disposed in different Classes, and adapted to a Methodical Catalogue of engraved British Heads; interspersed with a Variety of Anecdotes, and Memoirs of a great Number of Persons, not to be found in any other Biographical Work. The Materials being supplied by the Manuscripts left by Mr. Granger, and the Collections of the Editor, the Rev. Mark Noble, F.A.S. of London and Edinburgh, Rector of Barming in Kent. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Richardson, Darton and Harvey, &c.

THE long-indulged expectations of the public, with respect to the late Mr. Granger's papers, have at last been fulfilled; and these MSS. having been examined and digested, the design of the collector has been adopted by Mr. Noble in the volumes before us: which promise to desultory readers a feast at once salutary, various, and abundant, and consequently well adapted to the prevailing taste of the present age.

The practice too much followed in these days, of publishing accounts of living persons without their consent, cannot be sufficiently reprobated: but every lover of decorum will applaud the more becoming feeling expressed by the industrious editor of this work, on the behalf of the proprietors of these manuscripts; who, in bringing down the accounts for which Mr. Granger had collected materials, were determined 'not to come so close on our own times, as to excite uneasy apprehensions or sensations in the minds of those, whose families and near connections might be affected by the relation.'

Mr. Noble speaks with becoming diffidence of his execution of this arduous undertaking; and he may be assured that he cannot hope more to conciliate the good will of such of his readers as possess taste and discrimination, than by professing sentiments of veneration for his predecessor, and by treading in his steps. Mr. Granger, he truly observes, 'was really enamoured of his object: he wrote of it *con amore*, and with a felicity of selection, and a conciseness of expression, which it is much easier to admire than to imitate.'

In selecting a few specimens, we hope to enable our readers to judge not only of the comparative claims of the original writer and his continuator, but of the entertainment and instruction

instruction which they may expect to derive from these volumes.

The great respectability of the person, the just criticism on a neglected work of inestimable value, and the anecdote which it contains of a never-to-be-forgotten public character, induce us to set the following at the head of our sketches:

'JOHN SCOTT, S.T.P. *prefixed to "Works," V. Gught.*

'JOHN SCOTT, S.T.P. *prefixed to his "Practical Discourses,"* 1701; 8vo. R. White.

'Dr. Scott, one of the highest ornaments of the English church, was a native of Chippenham, in Wiltshire; his father, Mr. Thomas Scott, was a grazier, having no interest to procure his son's preferment, and perhaps not suspecting the greatness of his abilities, he bound him apprentice to a tradesman in London; but this act being contrary to the bent of his mind he quitted the situation, and went to Oxford as a commoner in New Inn, 1657, being then about nineteen years of age; his tutor was Mr. Chistopher Lee. His attainments were great in logic and philosophy. He did not wait for a degree, but going into holy orders returned to London. He became successively chaplain to St. Thomas, Southwark, perpetual curate of Trinity in the Minories, rector of St. Peter's le-Poor, in Broad-street, and prebendary of Bloomsbury, in St. Paul's cathedral. It was a matter of doubt which was superior, his abilities or his piety. The bishop of London and the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, proud of so great a man in the capital, patronized him; the university of Oxford, in 1685, added the degree of bachelor and doctor in divinity. His seasonable sermons against popery procured him from William III. the church of St. Giles in the Fields: the bishopric of Chester, and afterward another bishopric, as well as the deanery of Worcester and a stall at Windsor, were offered but refused by him, as he was scrupulous in taking the oath of allegiance and doing homage. Dying March 10, 1694-5, he was buried in the rector's vault in St. Giles's church, honoured, beloved, lamented. No clergyman has been more highly valued as a preacher, as a writer, or as a christian, than Dr. Scott; but his studies and duties hastened his death. In his "Christian Life," he raises men to the rank of angels, if they believe what the Scriptures require, and live according to its precepts. *He* practised what he wrote. His works have been republished in eight volumes. How much is it to be lamented that his "Christian Life" is not shortened so as to be read by all ranks of people. In nothing else, I am certain, has the religion of Christ, the sublimity of his doctrines, the joys of the blessed in a beatified state, been so well displayed. Dr. Scott attended the dying lord-chancellor Jeffries, and awakened his conscience to all the horrors which the many crimes he had committed deserved; the only excuse he offered for his severities in the west was, that they were less than satisfied the hard-hearted James. Jeffries, bad as was his character, possessed great sense. In sending for Dr. Scott he evinced this, and more—a desire to fit himself, as far

as

as he could, to ask for that mercy in heaven, which he had so often denied on earth *.'

As we cannot doubt that the history mentioned in the note would excite great interest, and meet with an extensive circulation, we advise Mr. Noble to lose no time in giving it to the world. He is well founded in ascribing to the unprincipled Chancellor great sense; since his decisions, when unbiassed by interest or influence, have been always regarded by lawyers as ranking among the most able and sound of any in their books.

The subsequent delineation evinces that Mr. Noble is untainted by obsolete bigotry; and in his commendation of Dr. Kennett's conduct, we cordially join:

'GEORGE HICKS, S.T.P. *fol. R. White ad vivum*, 1703.

'GEORGE HICKS, S.T.P. *prefixed to his "Sermons,"* 1713, 8vo. *R. White ad vivum.*

'GEORGE HICKS, *in the Oxford Almanack*, 1733.

'Dr. Hicks, of a Yorkshire family, was sent to Oxford, and there chosen a fellow of Lincoln college; leaving the university he became chaplain to the Duke of Lauderdale, and afterwards to Charles II. who made him a prebendary in Worcester cathedral, and, October 13, 1683, he was installed dean of Worcester. Dr. Hicks applied himself with great care to this important charge, obliging the copyholders to a regular payment of their fines, and settling with the bishop the stated terms of residence for the prebendaries; he also drew up a form of constitutions for the better government of the king's school in this city. Unfortunately all these services were interrupted by the Revolution, during which he was a warm supporter of James II. He was deprived February 1, 1691, for declining to take the oaths to William and Mary. He would have been suffered to retire in peace with the other nonjurors, had he not imprudently written a paper, addressed to the members of his cathedral, in which he declared his rights still valid; and affixing it at the entrance of the choir, it was thought so great an insult on the government that the attorney-general was ordered to prosecute him for it. Strange that he, whose brother John Hicks, a non-conformist minister, was executed for being concerned in Monmouth's rebellion, should become the champion of the nonjurors!—Changing his clerical garb, he took shelter at Ambroseden, or Amersden, in Oxfordshire, under the roof of Dr. White Kennett, so violent a revolutionist as to be called the very "Judas of a dean." The greatest good resulted from the association of these two opposites; it was impossible for them to converse on religion, consequently their general topic was literature.—Dr. Kennett requested Hicks's assistance in learning the northern European languages; this laid the foundation of what will ever be greatly to the honour of Dr. Hicks, his "Thesaurus." A work as useful

* I have, in MS. the history of the chancellor Jeffries, with an account of his family, written by myself.'

as splendid; which gained him the acknowledged palm of Anglo-Saxon literature and that which is connected with it, the Runic and other northern dialects. At length Dr. Hicks was recognized under his secular habit at Ambroseden, he therefore wished for privacy elsewhere. They were thus obliged to part. Dr Kennett must ever be applauded for giving an asylum to his old college friend. Dr. Hicks went to London, where he lived in obscurity, until Lord chancellor Somers, who venerated learning and perfectly knew him, procured a *noli prosequi*, May 16, 1699, which freed him from all personal danger: but nothing could teach him moderation. The greatest object of his hatred was Archbishop Tillotson, whom he treated as an "atheist," and next to him Bishop Burnet, whom he never scrupled to call "lyar." The primate, meek, and humble, used no acrimony in reply; but the prelate charged his adversary with being all but a "papist." As to Hicks, with a constancy which the stake could not have shaken, he made Heaven's gate so narrow that it could admit none but a few nonjurors to pass. His polemical works, like most others of that kind, are now almost forgotten; but his "Thesaurus" will be immortal. He died December 13, 1715, and was buried on the 17th, in the cemetery of St. Margaret's, Westminster. Whilst we lament his narrow bigotry, we must exult in his learning, which has done honour to his country.'

Very creditable to the writer's stock of impartiality, and very much in the spirit of his admired model, are the sketches which Mr. Noble draws of the more celebrated non-conformist divines of the period. For instance:

'PHILIP HENRY, M. A. *Ra. Holland delin. R. White sculp. prefixed to his Life, by Matthew Henry his son*, 1712, 8vo.

'Son of Mr. John Henry, gentleman to Philip Earl of Pembroke, who procured him the places of keeper of the Orchard at Whitehall, and page of the back stairs to the Duke of York. He seemed born to be a courtier, as his father was until his death, for he had for his sponsors Philip Earl of Pembroke, James Earl of Carlisle, and Katherine Countess of Salisbury. Nearly of the same age with the princes, afterwards Charles II. and James II. he was often admitted to play with them. He had his education at Westminster, where he was a king's scholar, and at Christ Church, in Oxford, he took orders, and officiated for some years at Worthenbury, in Flintshire, where he continued, under a sort of toleration till August, 1662, when refusing to conform, he was, by the operation of the Bartholomew act, ejected from that cure; but, fortunately for himself, he had an estate at Broad-oak, where he chiefly resided. His non-compliance was a great injury to the church, for he was eminently qualified as a divine, a scholar, and a gentleman, for one of its ministers. It was singular that at no time did he violate his oath of allegiance to Charles I. nor did he insult the government under the royal brothers. He even joined in and presented an address to James II. acknowledging his clemency in granting universal toleration. At the Revolution his name was inserted in the commission of peace, but he refused acting as

as a magistrate, confining himself to his ministerial functions. This exemplary man was born August 24, 1631, and died June 24, 1696. When his old master, Dr. Busby, said to him, "Pri'thee, child, what made thee a non-conformist?" he replied, "Sir, you made me one; for you taught me those things that hindered me from conforming." Busby had been during the civil war, and until the Restoration, one who spoke not for prelacy. Mr Henry always read a portion of Scripture before morning and evening prayers began, which he explained; and after the prayers were ended, his only son, the well-known Matthew Henry, and his four daughters, were obliged to retire and write down the exposition they had heard, so that each had a comment on the whole Bible in their own hand writing. This pious and valuable man died at the age of sixty-five.'

We would not vouch for having sagacity enough to distinguish every where between the master and the disciple, but we think that the hand of the former is discernible in the account of Judge Holt:

'Sir JOHN HOLT, knt. *fol. G. Kneller p. R. White sc.* 1689.

'Sir John Holt, born December 30, 1642, at Thame, in Oxfordshire, was a wild and unmanageable youth; his frolics were numerous at Abingdon school, and Oriel College, Oxford, where he was entered a gentleman commoner. After his good sense had subdued the propensity to juvenile indiscretion, his application to his studies was unwearied. Called to the Bar, he was made a serjeant at law Feb. 9, 1684, appointed recorder of London, knighted in February 1685-6, by James II. and made king's serjeant April 22, 1686. Objecting to the rapid strides of James against law and liberty, he resigned his recordership in April, 1687. The king having withdrawn himself, some settlement of the government became necessary, and it was well known that the prince of Orange came for, and would receive nothing less than the crown; the conditions were to be determined by the convention. Holt was chosen by the peers, at St. James's, with Maynard, Pollexfen, Bradford, and Atkinson, to assist them in their consultations. His abilities raised him at once to the highest office in the Court of the King's Bench, being appointed lord chief justice, April 17, 1689, which he held twenty-one years, a circumstance never known before nor since. To an offer made him of presiding in chancery, he said, "I never had but one cause in Chancery; and, as I lost that, I cannot think myself qualified for so great a trust." The law and justice were never administered with more effect than when he presided in the King's Bench, and all their terrors sat on his brow *. It happened that a poor old decrepid creature

'* In the Banbury cause he told the House of Peers, that they ought to respect the law which had made them so great. Presiding over which, he should disregard any of their decisions; he would not even condescend to give them a reason for his conduct. In the same manner he set the Commons at defiance; *they* sent to demand reasons,

creature was brought before him as a sinner of great magnitude, "what is her crime?" "Witchcraft." "How is it proved?" "She uses a spell." "Let me see it." A scrap of parchment was handed to him. "How came you by this?" "A young gentleman, my lord, gave it me, to cure my daughter's ague." "Did it cure her?" "O yes, my lord, and many others." "I am glad of it.—Gentlemen of the Jury, when I was young and thoughtless, and out of money, I, and some companions as unthinking as myself, went to this woman's house, then a public one; we had no money to pay our reckoning, I hit upon a stratagem to get off scot free. On seeing her daughter ill, I pretended I had a spell to cure her; I wrote the classic line you see, so that if any one is punishable it is me, not the poor woman the prisoner." She was acquitted by the Jury, and rewarded by the chief justice. This most exalted character, comprising every excellence, died of a lingering illness, March 10, 1710-11, aged 67; and was buried in the church of Redgrave in Suffolk. He married a daughter of sir John Cropley, by whom he had no child. The Judge published, 1708, sir John Keyling's Reports, with annotations of his own, with three modern cases of great importance.'

We must also present our readers with the account of another sage of the law;

'Sir JOHN POWELL, knt. *la. fol. W. Sherwin sc.* 1711.

'Sir JOHN POWELL, knt. *mez.*

'This upright judge was a native of Gloucester, which city he represented in Parliament 1685, called to the coif, April 24, 1687, appointed a justice of the Common Pleas, April 21, 1686, at which

---

reasons, he gave none:—the Speaker and a select number of the House went in person to the Court of King's Bench, his answer was, "I sit here to administer justice; if you had the whole House of Commons in your belly, I should disregard you; and if you do not immediately retire, I will commit you, Mr. Speaker, and those with you." "Where there is a right," said he, "there is a remedy;" when it was urged that no injury could be done by a returning officer refusing a legal vote, against the sense of the other Judges, he directed a satisfaction to be given. Neither his compeers, nor the houses of parliament separately could bend, or, even both of them collectively, intimidate him; his invincible courage was equalled only by his incorruptible integrity. Queen Ann was compelled to dissolve the Parliament, that the acrimony between the two Houses might cease. A mob assembling before a trepan-house, in Holborn, the guards were called out: "Suppose," said he, "the populace will not disperse, what will you do?" "Fire on them," replied an Officer, "as we have orders." "Have you so! then take notice, that if one man is killed, and you are tried before me, I will take care that every soldier of your party is hanged." Assembling his tipstaves, and a few constables, he went to the mob and explained to them the impropriety of their conduct; at the same time promising that justice should be done against the "crimps," the multitude dispersed.'

time

time he had received the honour of knighthood, and was removed to the court of King's Bench, April 26, in the following year. He sat in that court when the seven bishops were tried, and declared against the king's dispensing power. In revenge for this conduct, James II. deprived him of the office of judge, July 2, 1688; but William III. placed him again in the Common Pleas, October 28, 1695. Queen Ann advanced him to the King's Bench, June 18, 1702; where he sat until his death, at Gloucester, on his return from Bath, June 14, 1713. He was never married. Jane Wenham was tried for witchcraft before him; her adversaries swore she could fly: "Prisoner, can you fly?" "Yes, my lord." "Well then you may; there is no law against flying." She lost her character, but saved her life, for he would not convict even by confession. The effects of faith in witchcraft have been horrid beyond compare. A martyrology for witchcraft would be more voluminous than that of Fox's for religion. The acts of the inquisition are not more diabolical than were our laws against witchcraft. James I. is said to have repented of the numbers of poor creatures he had suffered to be destroyed, by authority of law, particularly in Scotland. Judge Powell laid aside his gravity with his robes of office, and was in private life a chearful old bachelor. "I went," says Swift, "to the lord treasurer's, Oxford, and among other company found a couple of judges, one of them, judge Powell, an old fellow with grey hairs, who was the merriest old gentleman I ever saw, spoke pleasant things, and chuckled till he cried again."

We find the Judges of this period employing their influence in counteracting, not in inflaming, vulgar prejudices; and how much more honourable was this conduct, than is that which has been displayed by a majority of their successors at the close of the past century, who not only encouraged and sanctioned but joined in the mischievous clamour against the freedom of trade in provisions! Justice, however, calls on us to observe that neither the Chancellor of that day, nor the learned Lord who now fills that station, and who then presided in a Court of common law, gave any countenance to the delusion; and that the present Chief-Justices were not then on the bench.

It were easy to multiply extracts, and to accumulate observations on them: but from those which we have made, the reader will have a sufficient insight into the nature, plan, and style of this work, and will be able to estimate its merits as compared with those of the valued labours which Mr. Granger himself lived to finish.

In no line of literature are a spirit of philosophy, and a freedom from every kind of bias and prejudice, more indispensible than in that of biography; and the high degree in which Granger was in this respect qualified for such a province is well known to all his readers. Indeed, striking traces of a

dispassionate temper, of an unbiassed judgment, of an ardent love of truth, and of devotion to its dictates, occur in every page of his performance. As we were aware of the strong prejudices and avowed bias of his continuator, we own that it was with some suspicion that we took up the present volumes: but, on a perusal, we have found much less ground for complaint on this score than we had expected; and Mr. Noble's good sense seems to have suggested to him that he would not meet with the success of his model, and that he would never be allowed to stand by his side, without emulating the qualities which have given such celebrity to his book: If occasionally nature shews herself in the work before us, the author appears to have put forth no common efforts to controul his habitual turn, to discipline his feelings, and to give expansion to his views; and if we look in vain through his pages for the native candor, the fine taste, the chaste diction, and the consummate execution, which render the compositions of Granger so attractive, we witness a great portion of his diligence, a laudable endeavour to imitate his comprehensive conciseness, and a commendable desire not merely to steer clear of gross partiality, but to administer substantial justice. The reader will therefore find these volumes highly interesting; and though they contain many slight and are not free from some material errors, it should be recollected that in order to avoid these a writer must possess the zeal, the industry, and the impartiality of a Granger, and must like him devote a life to the pursuit.

ART. XII. *Remarks on the Reform of the Pharmaceutical Nomenclature; and particularly on that adopted by the Edinburgh College*; read before the Liverpool Medical Society. By John Bostock, M.D., &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 53. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1809.

IN the year 1792, the College of Physicians of Edinburgh published an edition of their Pharmacopœia, in which the nomenclature, as far as it regarded the substances derived from chemical preparations, was regulated by the principles suggested and followed by the illustrious Bergman. The mention of this circumstance induces us to express our opinion that the system of chemical nomenclature which was adopted by the Swedish philosopher, when clothed in a Latin dress, approaches more nearly to the idiom of that language, than the modern nomenclature of the French, with all its advantages. Thus, *soda vitriolata* is not less precise than *sulphas sodæ*; it is but little longer; and it is a purer Latin expression. In throwing out this hint, however, we by

no

no means wish to see a language employed by the physician or the apothecary which was different from that of the chemist, merely for the purpose of preserving the purity of the Latin tongue; nor to recommend the sacrifice of uniformity, perspicuity, and simplicity, in the nomenclature of the different departments of medical science, to an affected or even a real admiration of a dead language.

In 1801, the Edinburgh college expressed their approbation of a proposed new edition of the Pharmacopœia: but this edition, for what reason we are ignorant, was not published till the year 1803; and in 1805, within the short period of two years, a republication, or rather another edition of the Pharmacopœia, containing farther alterations, and the correction of some errors, was undertaken by the same learned body, and presented to the world. It is to the last two editions of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, that the observations of Dr. Bostock chiefly refer.

The subject which Dr. B. has brought under discussion, it must be acknowleged, is of very considerable magnitude; and we are gratified to find that he has treated it with candour, moderation, and judgment. After some general remarks on the improved chemical nomenclature of the French philosophers, as well as on the reform which was introduced by Linné into the different departments of Natural History, the author proceeds first to consider the propriety of extending the new nomenclature to pharmacy, and then inquires how far the alterations made by the Edinburgh college are to be regarded as improvements.

On the first point, Dr. B. is of opinion that the arguments, which may be adduced in favour of the new chemical nomenclature, are not applicable to medicine; and he asserts that, on the contrary, other weighty considerations would induce us to adhere in most cases to the names already in general use: because, in the science of medicine, (which, he observes, treats only in an indirect manner of the constitution and chemical properties of the substances of the Materia Medica, and considers less the ingredients of which they are composed than their effects on the living body,) it seems to be of comparatively little importance whether the names by which they are designated should suggest correct notions of their composition; and because, it is added, the number of new substances introduced into the *Materia Medica* is very small, and, in the few instances in which a body is for the first time employed in medicine, it must have been previously well known by some familiar name. In order to give a dis-

tinct view of the author's reasonings on this subject, we quote the following passage :

'The alteration of pharmaceutical terms is not merely unnecessary, it is positively injurious. In the administration of medicines three sets of men are concerned, the physician or surgeon who prescribes, the apothecary who compounds, and the druggist who sells them. It is obviously of the first importance that these persons should all speak the same language, and it may be confidently asserted, that there are instances, in which the contrary custom might be productive of fatal consequences. Now, without meaning to insinuate what is disrespectful towards any branch of the profession, let me ask, whether it is probable, that the apprentices of druggists or apothecaries, whether it is probable that druggists or apothecaries themselves, I may add, whether it is probable, that a large part of physicians and surgeons, who are engaged in the most extensive practice, but who are unacquainted with the improvements in modern science; is it probable, I ask, that these persons will adopt either the Linnæan or the Lavoisierian nomenclature? Can we reasonably expect, that chamomile will ever be stiled *anthemis nobilis*, or that red precipitate will ever be called *oxidum hydrargyri rubrum per acidum nitricum*, by any but professors in universities, or by young practitioners just emerging from the walls of a college? What then will be the consequence? Some individuals, particularly among those entering into the profession, will employ the new nomenclature, and it will probably be adopted by a considerable number of the scientific young men, who may henceforth complete their studies at the university of Edinburgh; while the great majority of physicians and surgeons, either unable or unwilling to abandon their old habits, with the whole class of apothecaries and druggists, will continue to call chamomile, chamomile, and red precipitate, red precipitate. We shall thus have a constant clashing of the two systems; when the different members of the profession meet in consultation, they will speak two languages; the moderns will be as unintelligible to the ancients, as if they were conversing in German; and when a prescription, couched in the new terms, is sent to the apothecary's shop, either the young men will be obliged to decypher each word by a reference to their Pharmacopeia, or what is perhaps more probable, they will content themselves with forming a conjecture upon the subject, and will mix together those ingredients, which seem the most nearly to represent the uncouth terms employed by the scientific physician.

'Another evil, of no small magnitude, which will result from the adoption of the new nomenclature in pharmacy, is the confusion that it will occasion in medical publications. Probably most authors will think it necessary to be at the pains of translating their terms into the language authorized by the college, but by so doing, they will render their works nearly unintelligible to the bulk of their brethren; and the same difficulty will occur to the younger practitioners, who having fully adopted the new system of names, will be equally

equally at a loss to understand the writings of their predecessors. In either case it will be impossible to read medical books without the assistance of a pharmacopœia, in which the hard words must be searched out, as in a lexicon, a circumstance which cannot always be accomplished, and which, at best, would be a burthensome and tedious operation.' pp. 7—11.

Such are the sentiments and reasoning of Dr. Bostock with regard to the consequences which are likely to succeed a change in the nomenclature of the Pharmacopœia; and we acknowlege that, in our opinion, his apprehensions are by no means groundless. We are not ignorant that the nomenclature, proposed by the college in their Pharmacopœia published in 1792, has not yet been adopted by many of the older practitioners; and, if we be not misinformed, the alterations in the last editions are not very generally received, even in that part of the kingdom over which the jurisdiction of the college extends: a numerous body of practitioners entertaining sentiments similar to those of Dr. B., and being convinced that the necessity for change was not urgent.

The circumstances now stated plainly shew that the partial use of the new nomenclature must produce great confusion, even if the more serious evils apprehended by the author, from the diversity of language employed by the different persons concerned in the practice of medicine, could be certainly avoided. Here it may be said by the advocates for pharmaceutical reform, that all this is no fault of the college; and that the universal adoption of the new language would completely obviate the dangers and inconveniences which are thus dreaded. This would indeed be the most likely way of removing the difficulty: but we fear that it is cutting rather than untying the knot. Let it be recollected that the fiat of the college is not all-powerful, but is rather to be regarded as a simple recommendation than a positive law. Can it, then, be expected that a new language in medicine will more readily meet with unanimous approbation, or even with a very general reception from those who are engaged in the different departments of the art, (especially if the change be not imperiously required,) than a new phraseology would experience in being admitted into the intercourse and affairs of common life. It is obvious that, in both cases, changes of language must struggle with settled prejudices and confirmed habits; and, if not absolutely necessary, nor possessing some peculiar advantages of perspicuity and brevity of expression to facilitate the communication of knowlege by speech or writing, they can only be introduced slowly and gradually into general use. From the hints now suggested, it will appear that we are disposed

to think with Dr. B., that the learned body, whose labours he endeavours to appreciate, has been premature in presenting to the world the last two editions of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. The desire of change, indeed, rather than the certain hope of improvement, seems to have had the chief influence in most of the alterations proposed by the college.

The next point, to which Dr. B. directs his inquiries, is the extent of the changes in the nomenclature of the Pharmacopœia; for on this, he properly observes, much of the force of his reasoning depends. In the first edition of the Pharmacopœia under consideration, only 24 articles of the *Materia Medica*, out of 240, retained the name by which they were designated in the edition of 1792; and of the names of 285 articles classed with the preparations and compounds, only 62 have a place in the late edition. These are certainly sweeping changes. It is true that nine years had elapsed before they were projected; and it was not till the end of a period of eleven years that they were finally executed and presented to the public: but the spirit of innovation being roused, the revolutionary rage of the college continues to operate; and the work of reformation proceeds with such rapid strides, that in two years more, (from 1803 to 1805, when the last edition appeared,) not fewer than 200 alterations, including the changes in the titles of the preparations, with the additions and omissions, were made. From this statement, one of two things necessarily follows; either the college has failed in establishing fixed principles for regulating the changes proposed; or the fluctuating state of the sciences connected with medicine precludes the possibility of accomplishing the object of pharmaceutical reform, in a manner which promises to be in any degree useful. As Dr. Bostock elsewhere remarks, the task which the college has undertaken seems to exceed even the abilities of that learned body; so that in every view the attempt at reform has been premature.

Dr. B. urges another objection to the proposed changes, on the ground that substances, of which the physical properties are well known but the chemical composition is yet undiscovered, cannot be accurately denominated on any principles of nomenclature whatever. *Cuprum Ammoniacum* is adduced as an example. The preparation and properties of this substance are quite familiar: but the elements of its composition, and the state of combination in which they exist, have not been ascertained. The college has denominated this substance "*Ammoniaretum Cupri*;" on the presumption, we apprehend, that the new compound consists of ammonia and oxyd of copper: but we cannot avoid observing that nothing

can be more gratuitous than such a supposition; and we must add that nothing can shew more clearly the utter neglect of chemical principles than the reformed name of this substance: for whatever be the change produced by rubbing together in a mortar sulphate of copper and carbonate of ammonia, it cannot be once imagined that the sulphuric acid of the copper does not still act some important part. It is not, surely, annihilated. What, then, is the state of its new combination? Has it left the copper, and united with the ammonia? The effervescence, which appears during the operation, is a certain proof that the ammonia has entered into a new combination; whence the probability is that a part at least has formed a new compound with part of the acid; and therefore it is suspected that one portion of the new preparation is a triple salt, and ought to be considered as a sulphate, or perhaps a sub-sulphate of copper and ammonia, while another portion consists of ammonia united with oxyd of copper.

Dr. B. next inquires in what manner the college has executed their reform. Here he reminds the reader that the professed object of the alterations adopted was to introduce a more appropriate nomenclature, founded on the improved state of natural history and chemistry, in order that the nature and composition of the substances admitted into the *Materia Medica* might be more correctly named, and more readily known. The only deviation from this plan is in cases in which the name of the compound, if designated according to the improved chemical nomenclature, would be of inconvenient length; and also in the case of some of the simple substances which are in most frequent use, as opium, manna, and musk, which still retain their old names.

We shall not enter into any long detail in examining this part of the Essay before us; deeming it sufficient to mention only a few of the examples adduced by the author to shew the imperfect execution of the work which forms the subject of his criticism. In the new nomenclature, "*acidum acetasum*" is substituted for the old term *acetum*; but, as the experiments of the most able chemists have proved that the only difference between common and radical vinegar consists in the degree of purity and concentration, the new name, implying that there are two acids, acetous and acetic, conveys an erroneous idea of the nature of this acid. The specific name of *napellus* is affixed to the aconite, although it is not yet ascertained what species is employed in medicine. "*Amomum repens*," the new name for *Cardamomum minus*, is in the same predicament; since the plant, from which the lesser cardamom seeds are obtained, is not positively known to

botanists. It is here stated by Dr. B. that, in 49 instances of vegetable substances, the plant is best known by its specific name, so that the generic name being prefixed adds nothing to its more correct designation. In another view, also, the introduction of the generic name is considered by the author as injurious; for in 36 instances, the same generic term is applied to two or more substances; whence arises some danger of substances very different in their nature being confounded. "*Boras sodæ*" is used for Borax: but to this it is properly objected that it is only a sub-borate. The same objection is with equal propriety made to "*Carbonas potassæ*," and "*Carbonas sodæ*," both of which are sub-carbonates; and not less objectionable is the very indefinite term "*impurus*," which is added to the two latter:—a term, we must observe, which ought for ever to remain a stranger not only to natural history and chemistry, but to every other branch of science in which ambiguity is to be avoided and precision is required. Vague and indefinite as this epithet must appear to be, it has become a peculiar favourite with the reformers of the Edinburgh college; since we have "*Carbonas zinci impurus*," and "*oxidum zinci impurum*," instead of *Lapis Calaminaris* and *Tutty*. In the first of these substances, the designation *carbonas* is extremely incorrect; because, in almost every case, it contains a portion of oxygen, and is not seldom entirely destitute of carbonic acid. "*Subacetis cupri*" ought to be *sub-acetas cupri*, as being formed of acetic acid: but it appears, from the experiments of Proust, that verdegris consists of two salts, the acetate and the subacetate of copper: the name now adopted is therefore erroneous. "*Sulphas aluminæ*" is the new name for alum: but in this salt, besides the acid being in excess, we have always a portion of an alkali, so that the alum of commerce is a triple salt.

"*Mucilago mimosæ nilotiæ*," "*Decoctum anthemidis nobilis*," and "*Decoctum hordei distichi*," which are the new names for mucilage of gum arabic, infusion of chamomile flowers, and barley-water, would certainly indicate, to a person who was unacquainted with the subject, that the whole plant is employed in the preparation; whereas in the first the gum only is used, in the second the flowers, and in the third the seeds or grain. On this unfortunate effort at reform, Dr. B. remarks that, in the bulk of the profession, such denominations will be apt to excite only feelings of ridicule: but in us, we must confess, pity takes the place of ridicule, in contemplating so feeble and so unsuccessful an attempt at improvement in nomenclature.

An old practitioner would be unable to recognize *burnt alum* under the new and erroneous designation of "*Sulphas aluminæ exsiccatus*;"

exsiccatus;" and a chemist would be at a loss to see how such a denomination could be applied to a triple salt. "*Oxidum antimonii cum sulphure, per nitratem potassæ*," expresses, under a long and very imperfect descriptive title, a compound of the oxyd and the sulphuret of antimony, but without suggesting that it always contains a portion of potash. "*Murias hydrargyri*," and "*Sub-murias hydrargyri*," are the new names for well-known substances, the first being substituted for corrosive sublimate, and the second for calomel; and Dr. Bostock objects to them not only because of the danger, from the very slight dissimilarity of the names, that substances so different in their nature and effects may be confounded, but also, because they are not designated according to strict chemical principles: the only difference between corrosive sublimate and calomel being that, in the former, the mercury is in a higher state of oxidation than in the latter, so that the first ought to have been denominated *oxy-muriate*, and the second *muriate of mercury*. — "*Oxidum hydrargyri rubrum per acidum nitricum*" is another long designation, in some measure descriptive of the method of preparing a substance which is supposed to differ from red precipitate formed by means of heat, in still retaining a portion of nitric acid, the existence of which in the preparation is not indicated in the name. Is it not surprising that the abridged form of expression, *Oxidum hydrargyri nitricum*, did not in this case occur to the framers of the new nomenclature?

We must, however, refrain from multiplying instances of unappropriate and incorrect designation; and for others we must refer to the pamphlet. The examples now adduced furnish abundant evidence of the incorrect execution of the task of reform which was undertaken by the Edinburgh college; and this, we think with Dr. B., constitutes the most powerful objection to the introduction of the new nomenclature.

The view which we have given of this tract, and the observations which the perusal of it suggested, will, we presume, be quite sufficient to satisfy our readers that the author has fully established his two general positions; the first with regard to the necessity of reforming the nomenclature of the Pharmacopœia, which he has shewn was not very urgent; and the second, with respect to the manner of its execution, which appears to be extremely imperfect. The pamphlet is concluded with a handsome apologetic compliment to the members of the Edinburgh College of Physicians; in which it is alleged by Dr. B. that, since that learned body, with the co-operation of great abilities, has failed in improving the pharmaceutical nomenclature, the task of reform is to be

regarded as hopeless. In this opinion we do not entirely agree; and we deem it not impossible that in less able hands the result would have been more fortunate. The sublime genius of Buffon could not have submitted to the patient investigation of Linné; and the minute accuracy and nice discrimination of the Swedish philosopher, which appear in his wonderful efforts in improving the nomenclature and classification of the various departments of natural history, would have been lost in attempting the glowing descriptions of the animated world in which the French naturalist has so happily succeeded.

We suspect, moreover, that the co-operation of only a small number of the members of the college has been engaged in the business of reform; probably a committee composed of a few of the senior fellows, whose professional avocations preclude them from keeping pace with the progressive improvement of the different branches of natural history and chemistry, that are more immediately connected with medical science. Perhaps even the members of this committee may not have united in their labours; since otherwise we should have found fewer inaccuracies and glaring defects, as well as fewer inconsistencies with the principles laid down by themselves, than now appear in the new nomenclature of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. The remarkable failure in the execution of the chemical department strikes us most forcibly, and leads us to wonder that the college has not availed itself of the abilities of the professor of chemistry, and of those of the authors of the systems of chemistry quoted by Dr. B. in support of his opinions. These gentlemen, we believe, are on the spot; and no doubt the extent and accuracy of their knowlege would have contributed essentially to render the labours of the college more perfect.

This article is already too much protracted to permit us to offer some remarks on a plan of a more general reform of pharmaceutical nomenclature, which has occurred to us: but an opportunity of stating it will soon present itself, when we come to consider the changes in the nomenclature of the London Pharmacopœia, lately published, if in that case also the unavoidable extent of our criticism on the work itself should not preclude any farther detail.

ART.

ART. XIII. *Letters from Portugal and Spain, written during the March of the British Troops under Sir John Moore. With a Plan of the Battle of Corunna, and appropriate Engravings. By an Officer.* 8vo. pp. 340. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

IT was to be expected, and much to be desired, that we should be supplied with details of the unfortunate Spanish campaign under the late Sir John Moore, from some of those who were engaged in the sad scene, and whose situations afforded them opportunities of recording the events which they beheld. We have accordingly been furnished with several publications of this nature, which respectively demand from us such a report to our readers, as our other duties and our space will permit us to assign to them, considering their number and the similarity of their contents: but we regarded it as incumbent on us to place first on the list the narrative which has been prepared from the papers of the lamented General himself, of which a full abstract was given in our Number for September last; and to which, as the standard, in all questions of high political and military import, every other account must be referred and be subservient. In miscellaneous information, however, and in delineations which respect countries and manners, the productions of private individuals have in course the advantage; and to these points, therefore, we shall chiefly attend in our view of them.

From the signature to the plates in this volume, viz. *R. K. Porter, delin.*, and from current report, we understand that it proceeds from the *pen* of a gentleman of that name, to whose *pencil* the public have been frequently indebted; who has also served on the staff of the British army; and who, during his travels in Russia, received the honour of Knighthood from the sovereign of that empire. His style of writing possesses the liveliness and the freedom which are appropriate to epistolary correspondence, but is not always sufficiently correct for the literary eye; and he speaks of the people with whom he is mixing, and of the transactions to which he was a party or a witness, with an unreservedness which is desirable for historical purposes, but which may perhaps subject him to the charge of harshness in some cases, and in others to that of a deficiency in the secresy of a *preux chevalier*. His representations of both the Portuguese and the Spanish are indeed generally unfavourable; and it is to be regretted that all former travellers, and the events of the present day, but too strongly corroborate his opinion.

Of Lisbon, the usual picture presents itself; and we are introduced to nasty streets and dirty houses, idle monks and amorous

amorous devotees, meretricious dances and obscene songs. We lament also to hear that 'since the departure of the French, those in power are again making the horrors of the inquisition the instruments of their vengeance.'

During the writer's march through Portugal into Spain, a very discreditable national trait presents itself:

'We were frequently shewn the caps and arms of the unfortunate Frenchmen who had fallen sacrifices to the knives of this oppressed people. They told us exultingly, while they held them up, the particulars of many a bloody scene; and how often it had been repeated by the discovery and murder of some other poor straggglers. I fear that this base sort of revenge is the only one the generality of this nation are now capable of devising. I no where hear amongst them any sentiments on their release from a foreign yoke, which speak principles of a nobler kind than a merely natural joy at being relieved from insult and exaction. No grand views connected with freedom and national advantages seem to enter their heads; all they think of is the temporary escape from personal inconvenience; and I have a notion that had Napoleon's Generals acted with less rigor, and condescended in any degree to have won the people's confidence, we should have heard that all was very quietly settled in Lusitania. But when the titles of the native nobility are assumed, and their estates sequestrated; when the lower classes are oppressed and plundered, no wonder then that every body being injured, all should seek redress, and, fearful of their own strength, fly to the broad shield of England.'

On entering Spain at Alcantara, Sir Robert Porter says that he contemplated the proud walls of that city as 'a type of the brave nation we came to defend; noble in ruins, and settled on the impregnable rock of nature, determined to maintain their existence against those attacks which shook other places to their foundation.'

'With such sentiments, such respect and cordiality for the inhabitants, did we enter Alcantara. But the governor proved a beast—a vulgar, uncivil animal, with little power to serve us, and less inclination. He was asleep when we called on him. Indeed all seemed asleep to the feelings we brought along with us. They received us with the coldness of men, shewing they were resolved ever to consider us as strangers, and treated us with an inhospitality they durst not have ventured had they not believed us to be friends.'

Heu! sic omnia!—with only such exceptions as confirm the rule.

At Salamanca, we find the author's military views become very gloomy, and his ideas but too much in accordance with those which we know to have been entertained by the commander in chief, and with the actual result. He anticipates the

the necessity of that *retreat* which he yet deprecates and dreads, and he adds;

'From the brave honesty of Sir John Moore, I have no doubt of his informing ministers at home of the true state of Spain; and of how shamefully the junta has misled them, by its representations of the patriotic zeal and military preparation of the nation. That the Spaniards did not continue as the junta found them was its own fault. Oppressed and outraged by the French, with a wild revenge hordes of enraged people rose in every quarter of the kingdom: their sudden and impetuous vengeance carried all before them; the veteran armies of France were destroyed, the usurper driven from his assumed capital, and the cry of restitution resounded every where. This was the sympathetic act of a whole nation; and this was the fortunate moment for a virtuous nobility to have turned it to their country's advantage. Had some great spirit seized this conquering body, and guided it with the singleness of aim which actuated the soul of Pelagio, when at the head of his zealous Asturians he drove the invading Saracens over his native mountains, we should not now be shut up in Salamanca, nor would the flying Spaniards be seeking a temporary refuge in their dishonoured homes.'

In a letter from Sahagun, when the army was advancing to the enemy, Sir R. Porter well observes:

'Bad as appearances may be, I have such a reliance on the prudence as well as courage of Sir John Moore, that I am certain he would not risk the tarnishing his fame, and the honour of his troops, by bringing them into a situation where either were likely to be injured. I am persuaded that the steps we are preparing to take were not determined on by him without his having conceived an idea of their necessity; that it would do still more than rescue the name of his army from the obliquy which the "great vulgar", as well as the "small," from ignorance of the peculiar situations of the objects they arraign, are ever ready to throw upon what does not exactly meet their expectations. Not that I believe he would needlessly sacrifice a hair of any man's head who is under his command, to gain the proudest admiration which depends on the prejudging judgments of those whose voice may give popularity, but never can bestow fame. He, with every other veteran, must be aware that it is sometimes the duty of a General to risk the odium of being called too severely cautious; nay, of being stigmatized with the appellation of lukewarmness, and a hundred epithets of the same complexion, rather than purchase acclamations at the expence of humanity; and, by a brilliant rashness, hurry his brave followers into an extremity where death is inevitable. The mob may deify such a valiant fool; but true heroism is to have the courage to refuse as well as to give battle.'

We now present a trait of a different kind, in compliment to the good sense of our countryman whom it brings forwards:

'Being

'Being now in the venerable cloisters of St. Dominique, (Salamanca) I cannot leave them without recounting an adventure which, under their hallowed roof, befel our mutual friend Captain — —. Hearing that a grand *Te Deum* was to be performed there, to invoke a blessing on the united arms of Spain and England, curiosity led him to be one of the audience. He found the holy place filled with the laity of Salamanca, besides the white brotherhood and flocks of *religieuses* of every rank from the neighbouring monasteries. The consecrated part of the congregation were arranged on either side of the main body of the church, clothed in all their sacerdotal attributes, and holding the sacred implements of their function. A very large standard, fringed and tasselled, and on which was painted or worked the figure of the saint, was held in the hands of a priest of the highest order. This hallowed production is never brought forth but upon the most extraordinary occasions.

'Our friend, unconscious of being himself an object of any attention, was standing very composedly listening to the loud swell of the organ, and the still louder voices of the tonsured choir, when a monk approached him respectfully, and saying something relative to *a standard*, took his hat from him, and at the same time taking his hand. Captain ———, who did not clearly understand what was said, supposed he was going to conduct him to a spot more convenient for seeing the religious ceremonies; judge, then, his surprize on finding himself not only led up to the consecrated banner of St. Dominique, but at having it placed in his grasp! At that moment the monks left him to be the supporter of their holy ensign; and a cloud of incense issuing from the surrounding censers, covered the flag and its holder. Imagine the feelings of our friend! to be thus made a partaker in papistical rite; and placed in a situation so conspicuous, and so hazardous of offending those we came to befriend, should he attempt to resist this enforced honour: however, the sudden roar of the organ, and the pealing voices of the fraternity, with the rapid advance of the marshalled corps *des religieuses*, interrupted his amazed cogitations, and hurried him forward like a stream, still bearing in proud array the sainted standard. Though reluctant to make one in such an exhibition, yet as he had been seized upon, and presented with the flag as a testimony of the Spanish church's amity with that of England; he would not, in common charity and prudence, but behave with all requisite decorum and respect.

'I believe it was the first time that so revered an appendage of the Roman Catholic faith was entrusted to the hand of a heretic. With a grave countenance he obeyed his fate; and the procession moved on, amidst a renewed burst of sacred minstrelsy. They passed through the great entrance—made rather a long circuit of the city; entering several cloisters and consecrated places; and halting at certain spots, where the holy singing again burst forth; and our friend was occasionally enveloped from the eyes of the attendant multitude by the vast volumes of smoking frankincense which rolled around him.

'After his patience and his arms were heartily fatigued by his ponderous load, the party retraced their steps, and re-entered the church

church of St. Dominique: on gaining the original place whence the standard had started, a long prayer was said, another cloud of fragrance filled the air, and Captain ——— resigned his sacred trust into the hands of the superior priests. His hat was given to him, and he gladly retired down the line of monks, being bowed and sung out of the church till he reached the open air. When fairly escaped from sight, he literally took to his heels, congratulating himself that an exhibition so inimical to the simplicity of his own faith had terminated without any restiveness on his side, and consequent affront on the part of our devout allies. He told me that he had the honour to precede the holy Virgin in this march, and that she brought up his rear, clad in all the costly apparel of the loom and the jeweller's shop.

'When I asked him how he could bring his conscience to be a partaker in this mummery, his reply was,—"I certainly would not have volunteered it: but in carrying a flag through a few streets, I neither worshipped stocks nor stones, nor subscribed to any repugnant doctrine. For peace-sake I accepted a civility paid to my country; and by my compliance, I hope I have shewn the people that we are as willing to be tolerant of their prejudices, as they have declared themselves to be of our faith."

Of the chastity of the ladies, we have already intimated that the author does not speak favourably; and in Iberia as well as in Lusitania, the *tender passion* is still depicted as "bearing sway," even among "the holy ones:"

'On the Portuguese frontiers, the fair inhabitants of a few nunneries did not even keep a threshold between our curiosity and their seclusion. We found as free ingress into their cells as if we had been a regiment of confessors; their veils were thrown aside, their holy abstinence neglected, and adventures truly romantic ensued. I fancy more than the history of Rousseau's nun was here realised in a hundred instances; and could these lovely forsworns have seen any prospect of safety by flight, I believe many of our officers would have had a daughter of the church added to his baggage.'

Other instances are given: but this may here suffice.

In reporting the first action between the British and the French cavalry, the author makes a representation which we most seriously recommend to our military rulers, and especially to the Colonels of our Merry-Andrew regiments of Dragoons:

'Most of our brave fellows who felt the edge of the French sword were cut in the head; and that owing to the little defence which the present form of their caps allows. This circumstance shews the necessity of changing the prevailing fashion of fantastic head-dresses in the field, for the less ornamental but more useful helmets of our enemies. Whatever be the fate of this expedition, we should at least make it serviceable to us, by learning all that is to be taught by the great masters of arms, who for these twenty years have been educated

in

in a university of blood and victory. *The deuce is in it*, then, if we cannot take a lesson from them in the art of shielding the most vital parts of our persons.

'Their helmets are light, excellently adapted to guard the head, and at the same time very elegant. They have brass chains which come under the chin, protecting the ears and the sides of the face from a horizontal *coup-de-sabre*. The men who wore furred caps at all resembling our own, had them lined within with a hoop of iron; and from the ears devolved two strong bars. Even with this heavy appurtenance their weight did not exceed that of the flimsy, but muff-like appendages that encumber the heads of so many of our soldiers. Indeed, this awkward cap of ours, by being constructed partly of pasteboard, soaks up a great quantity of wet during the violent rains of this country, and so becomes unbearably heavy and disagreeable, while it affords no protection to the wearer. At all times they can be cut down to his skull with the greatest ease. Excepting this defect, every other military appointment of our people, both for themselves and their horses, is superior to that of the French. An excellence which cannot but be perceived by them; while the late rencounters must force them to acknowledge our advantage in still more essential respects.'

Truly affecting details are given of the inconceivable misery which attended the final retreat of the army to Corunna, and of the battle at that port: but we have not room at this moment for additional extracts; and we shall find sufficient particulars of these scenes in other volumes, to which we must hereafter attend. We farther copy only one sufficiently remarkable passage:

'One of the French officers, our prisoner, said to me during our retreat: "Your country and your general little know how nearly your army was becoming ours by purchase."

'I answered, "No Englishman would thus sell his honour."

"No, your Spanish friends."

'It instantly struck me that Moria, who sold his conscience and the capital, and with that his country, was to have drawn us also into the snare! How ought we to thank the memory of our commander that we were not thus made a prey!'

In the beginning of this article, we hinted generally at the occasional inelegance and incorrectness of Sir R. Porter's language, and we shall now specify a few instances. P. 3. '*I hope in heaven* this may be the case.'—P. 46. 'No day escapes *but what you* witness,' &c.—P. 103. 'They never are fatigued with any *employment* more active than *idleness*.' (What countryman is Sir Robert?) P. 110. 'They both *eat* and *drank*.'—P. 122. *et al.* he speaks of an institution called an *Enfans trouvée*; p. 112. *et al.* we have *merveille* for *merveille*; and 125. &c. *chanion* for *chanoin*. False concords of noun and verb are also frequent.—Six views in *aquatinta*, and a plan of the battle of Corunna, illustrate the volume.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For NOVEMBER, 1809.

POETRY, *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 14. *Medea to Jason*; translated from Ovid. Crown 8vo. 2s. sewed. Baldwins. 1809.

We confess the unfeigned pleasure with which we open a classical imitation, or translation, after having toiled through the vain attempts at originality which are the daily disgrace of our contemporary rhymers. Why will they imagine that they can find better models, than those which the writers of our Augustan age at the beginning of the last century selected from the poets of Greece and Rome; models of which the imitation has been sanctioned by the practice of the best writers in every country of modern Europe, when that country has attained any high degree of civilization? To adopt, on the contrary, as our examples, barbarous compositions, strung together in the infancy of states, and partaking strongly of the rude spirit of the times in which they were composed, exhibiting in short the "darkness visible" of the middle ages, or, at best, only the faint dawn of the revival of literature, is surely an indication of declining taste.—We shall not, however, here urge arguments which we have stated more at length and shall again state elsewhere; and which we trust by a persevering repetition will at length produce their due effect,—the conviction of the most bewildered disciples of the silly school of modern metrical romance.

The present translation from Ovid is on the whole executed with vigour and fidelity. The translator justly observes that this epistle, in the original, possesses more animation and spirit than are to be found in the generality of its author's compositions. Grace, playfulness, and ease, are the characteristics of Ovid's usual style: but here he rises with his favourite subject into the higher strains of poetry:

'Where art thou, Providence? where lingering sleeps
Thy vengeance? O reward us in the deeps!
Thee, traitor, for thy lies, and sworn deceit;
And me for crediting the worthless cheat!
O that the loose Symplegades had crush'd
Our mingled bones, betwixt them as we rush'd!
Or would that Scylla, to ungrateful men
In angry hate, had snatch'd us to her den;
And glutted with the prey her howling train!
Or midst the gulph, that now the shrinking main
Absorbs, now vomits the refunded store,
O had we perish'd in the whirling roar!'

Again—

'Laugh on, insulting paramour, and lie
On beds rich-glowing with Sidonian dye!
Yet shall she weep, and feel consuming flame,
Fierce as now penetrates my fever'd frame.

For,

> For, long as fire can burn, or steel can wound,
> Or herbs of venom curse the teeming ground;
> No proud antagonist, exempt of harms,
> Mocks the weak vengeance of Medean charms.'

The phrase, 'exempt of harms,' and some others that might be mentioned, lessen the general effect of this translation; which is creditable to its author, whoever he may be.—We cannot dismiss Medea without a cursory remark on the transcendent superiority of Euripides over all his competitors in the management of this subject; nor without an expression of regret that the genius of Corneille should have been guided by so little taste as to imitate the ranting Medea of Seneca, instead of the dignified and impassionate heroine of Euripides.

Art. 15. *Fowling*, a Poem, in Five Books; descriptive of Grouse, Partridge, Woodcock, Duck, and Snipe Shooting. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This will be a pleasing poem to the literary sportsman, if such there be: but the phrase sounds as oddly as any of the combinations of incongruous substantive and adjective which have been made by modern ingenuity. The honest housebreaker, the virtuous adulteress, and the literary sportsman, seem to be homogeneous expressions; and yet the author of this little book is certainly a good English scholar, as well as a keen pursuer of game. We have perused his poem with satisfaction; and we think that any reader, who has a due relish for agreeable descriptions of country-scenery, and for a gentlemanly style of poetry (if we may use the term), will find amusement from the volume. "Would it were rhyme," we exclaimed, when presented with a troop of blank verses; as Falstaff exclaimed, "Would it were horse," when presented with a company of foot. However, it runs as well as a poem can run upon one leg; and we shall dismiss the sportsman with wishing him no other *blank days* in the season than those which he himself chuses to enjoy. At parting, we are sure that his candour will excuse the criticism which admonishes him—'*aurem vellit et admonuit*'—not to admit into his poetical pages, if ever he writes poetry again, such clippings of pure prose as the following; which, it is but just to add, find no counterparts in the volume:

> 'Oft undecided is the choice of dogs,
> To push the pheasant from his close retreat,
> The questing spaniel some prefer, and some
> The steady pointer; *whilst the use of both*
> *Is tried by others.*'

Art. 16. *The Fall of Portugal*, or the Royal Exiles, a Tragedy in Five Acts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Sixpence an act, and rather dear than otherwise. Two of the characters are the Prince of Brazil, and General Junot; the latter of whom inquires—

> 'Who guides our march?'

and

and says not another word in the play, admirably intimating that a military character, like that of Ajax in Homer, should deal in blows rather than in words.—The subject of the Emigration to the Brazils is too recent for scenic exhibition, unless it be the exhibition of a puppet-show; and we really think that much of the present tragedy is better adapted to the squeak of Mr. Punch than to the drawl of Mr. Kemble.

Art. 17. *Panthea*, Queen of Susia, a Tragedy in Five Acts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Barker. 1809.

We augured ill from the very title of this tragedy. Susiana, or Susis, was the name of the country of which Susa was the capital. The author has chosen his subject from the East, but is evidently one of the antipodes to the Wise Men. For instance—

> 'I sigh for peace, but sigh alas in vain!
> *I do the things that alienate it's love.*'
>
> Exit Araspes.

This couplet is taken at random from the play; every page of which abounds with similar drivel.—Much of it has no other resemblance to blank verse than that which the inequality of margin confers on prose.

Art. 18. *Selection of Poems.* By Charles Snart. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

If this selection were reduced to one volume, it would form a good miscellany of pleasing trifles. In its present state, the compiler cannot be accused of having admitted a single poem of which the style is licentious or the moral reprehensible: but he has been too ready to insert verses, odes, and sonnets cut out of old newspapers, in praise of 'angel-charms,' and 'beamy eyes,' and in which Strephon reproaches Cupid with having '*lit* a fire in his heart.' Mr. Snart has also transcribed several pieces from Mrs. Opie's collection of Poems, and many of Charlotte Smith's Sonnets; which, though we cannot read them without pleasure, we deem it hardly fair to borrow from the volumes of their fair writers

Mr. S. is indeed "a retailer of scraps, and deals in remnants of remnants, like a maker of pin-cushions:" he makes extracts from extracts, and he selects from selections; a great number of the poems in his two volumes being taken from Dodsley's Collection, Percy's reliques of Antient Poetry, Elegant Extracts, the Vocal Magazine, &c. &c. We have, however, to thank him for an ample selection of Peter Pindar's serious poems; and for preserving some very elegant fugitive pieces by Sheridan, several of considerable merit by Dr. Aikin, some lines by Roscoe on an exhausted rivulet, and the charming verses addressed by Charles Fox to Lady Crewe. He has also inserted the "Stanzas to Careless Content" by Dr. Byrom, which are very quaint, but very clever and characteristic; some pretty verses on Love, and some on Kisses, by Mrs. Robinson; with various others, by different authors, which are not devoid of merit, and will not be destitute of admirers.

Art. 19. *Poems, by William Hersee.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Darton and Harvey.

The preface to these poems assures us that the author 'has been debarred from every advantage of education, and instructed only by the village-matron;' and in the first he describes naturally the village-school, with his own cottage and garden, and wishes to write like Bloomfield, that he may immortalize them all. At the age of sixteen, he produced an '*Epitaph on a very old Cat*,' somewhat in the manner of Wordsworth; and at seventeen he composed an address of '*The young Lover to his Heart*;' in which he first tells his heart to '*lie still*' and not '*disturb his guiltless breast*,' next bids it '*fly and melt Mary's throbbing breast*,' and finally, '*if she scorns*,' he desires it to '*burst for her who loves another Swain*.' The lines '*To Sunset*' are, however, much better; and those '*On the Birth of a first Child*,' though puerile, are natural and feeling, probably because they were written from the real impulse of parental affection. This author has the merit of attempting no subjects with which he is not familiar; he seems to be an attentive and admiring observer of rural scenes; and almost all his poems are written in their praise.

Art. 20. *Kenneth and Fenella*; a Legendary Tale, by the Rev. F. S. Whalley, D.D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1809.

Dr. Whalley, not being, like *Gresset*,

> "*Persuadé que l'harmonie*
> *Ne verse ses heureux présens*
> *Que sur le matin de la vie;*
> *Et que sans un peu de folie*
> *On ne rime plus à trente ans*,"

has here presented us with a Legendary Tale, which he states to be 'the best effort of one whose imagination is clouded, and whose ardour is cooled by old age and infirmities;' and we feel it to be a painful as well as an unpromising task to point out the faults of a work so characterized. They are not, indeed, such as to need any very severe animadversion: one of the most palpable is the frequency with which the sentences are extended from one stanza to the next; and another defect is the total want of ornament throughout the tale, which is delivered in so unvarnished a state, that no episodical descriptions nor digressive reflections are suffered to interrupt its course. The admirers and imitators of Mr. Walter Scott, among whom we rank Dr. Whalley, should recollect that it is not merely by the plot and circumstance of his tales that their interest is created, but that the fascination of the images, and the pathos and beauty of the sentiments, constitute the attractions of the "Lay of the Last Minstrel" and of "Marmion." Dr. Whalley indeed thinks that the story of the murder of Kenneth II. of Scotland, by Fenella, is so fine a subject for a tragedy or a poem, that he wonders it has not been before adopted, and expects that his own sketch will 'awaken superior talents to draw from it a finished picture.' With respect to the sublimity of the tale, however, we differ from him; it is neither new nor impressive. Fenella is a haughty dame whose son had been executed for murder

murder by Kenneth; some time afterward, the king pays a visit to her castle; and *the tradition* says that, while he partook of her feast "she slew him by means of arrows, thrown out by an image the artful mechanism of which was of her own contrivance." Dr. Whalley tells us that he takes a Poet's licence, and makes her conceal a party of 'grim assassins' behind the tapestry, who rush forwards at a signal, and murder the king; and his son Malcolm, coming to avenge him, finds the way blocked

'With benches, corses, cates, and blood.'

These impediments prevent him from catching Fenella, who is at last discovered in a cave, by a blood-hound, and burnt alive by Malcolm's command.—The poem concludes with a few stanzas of exultation on the superior liberty and cultivation which are at present enjoyed in Scotland, and with compliments to some of the noblemen and gentlemen who have contributed to her agricultural improvements.

Art. 21. *Poems*, by Felicia Dorothea Browne. 4to. pp. 111. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We hear that these poems are 'the genuine productions of a young lady, written between the ages of 8 and 13 years,' and we do not feel inclined to question the intelligence: but, although this fact may ensure them an indulgent reception from all those who have "children dear," yet, when a little girl publishes a large quarto, we are disposed to examine before we admit her claims to *public* attention. Many of Miss Browne's compositions are extremely jejune, particularly the hymns and the French verses; and we doubt whether the heathen mythology justifies her in addressing a Sonnet to 'the Muse of pity and of love,' or in invoking the *Moon* by the name of *Cyllene*. She may have heard that the Moon was sometimes called *Selene*: but Cyllene, as she spells it, means nothing but a Mountain in Arcadia, on which a temple was built to *Mercury*, who was thence called *Cyllenius*. However, though Miss Browne's poems contain some erroneous and some pitiable lines, we must praise the 'Reflections on a ruined Castle,' and the poetic strain in which they are delivered. The lines to 'Patriotism' contain good thoughts and forcible images; and if the youthful author were to content herself for some years with reading instead of writing, we should open any future work from her pen with an expectation of pleasure, founded on our recollection of this publication; though we must, at the same time, observe that premature talents are not always to be considered as signs of future excellence. The Honey-suckle attains maturity before the Oak.

Art. 22. *Poetic Amusements*; consisting of a Sample of Sonnets, Epistolary Poems, Moral Tales, and Miscellaneous Pieces. By Thomas Beck. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Maxwell and Wilson.

Mr. Beck is a pleasing and instructive moralist; and though he never attempts any flights of sublimity, he gives importance and interest to familiar subjects by the propriety of his reflections, the appositeness of his examples, and the truth and force of his descriptions. His style is peculiar, and rather nervous than harmonious;

each of his poems would perhaps furnish subjects for an Essay, but not one of them could ever be converted into an Opera-Song. We prefer his 'Miscellaneous Poems' to the longer 'Moral Tales,' and the allegory of 'Fortune and her six Boxes' is moral and ingenious. The two poems on 'Smiles' and 'Frowns' have also smartness and originality; 'the Point of Identity' and the lines suggested by a foggy walk, are written with considerable humour; and the 'Samples of Sonnets' have the pleasantry without the personality of Peter Pindar's burlesque compositions. 'The Monthly Memorial' is the only poem that is unworthy of the collection in which it is placed: the ideas are as trite as the subject; and twenty minor poets have written stanzas on the months of the year, which equalled these in merit.

Art. 23. *British Loyalty; or Long live the King!* A dramatic Effusion, in two Acts, with Songs, Dances, &c. By Joseph Moser, Esq. D. L., one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for Middlesex, Essex, Surrey, Kent, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Asperne.

Mr. Moser has probably amused himself, and will probably amuse others, whose taste is not fastidious, by this loyal drama in honour of the Jubilee. Sailors, soldiers, and country-people are brought together on this joyful occasion, and their sentiments and songs are all expressive of attachment to the Sovereign. At the country-seat of Lord Liberal, a sort of Mask is performed; the object of which will be seen from the following stage-directions and song:

'*When the company is seated, a curtain flies up and displays a transparency, in which is exhibited the figure of Fame standing upon a pedestal, on which is depicted the arms of England. On the one side she holds in her hand a trumpet, on the banner of which is the number* FIFTY. *In the other hand, she holds one end of an extended scroll, which is unfolded by* TIME, *who stands on the ground with his scythe and hour-glass beside him. On the scroll is written, in large characters,*

LONG LIVE THE KING!!!

The distance displays a view of the front of Windsor Castle. In the clouds appear, on the one side, the emblems of the order of the garter; and, on the other, the Saxon standard, faintly touched: the distant wings are formed by groups of trees in the park.

'Dryad advances,

'The sounds of joy reverb'rate thro' the plains,
Where smiling plenty shows a BRUNSWICK reigns;
From distant hamlets brilliant trains arise,
Whose star'd explosions blaze in sable skies;
Proclaiming general joy. These from the dell,
Where silence rests, and murky spirits dwell,
Have call'd me forth, once more to greet my eyes,
And hail the royal standard as it flies:
Long may it wave o'er *Windsor's* towers august
In honour of a Monarch term'd THE JUST;
Who wishes, tho' the bolts of fate are hurl'd,
To bind in love, and peace, a suffering world!'

A long

A long speech from the Genius of Britain, complimentary to Majesty, concludes the piece.

COVENT-GARDEN THEATRE.

Art. 24. *Justice and Generosity against Malice, Ignorance, and Poverty:* or an Attempt to shew the Equity of the New Prices at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By Attalus. 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

Art. 25. *Considerations on the past and present State of the Stage;* with reference to the late Contests at Covent-Garden; to which is added a Plan for a New Theatre, for the Purpose of hearing Plays. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple.

"The Drama's laws the Drama's patrons give,
And they who live to please must please to live."

This has been the acknowleged doctrine of the Play-house, and on this principle John Bull has always been very despotic in the Pit and Galleries of our theatres: but his despotism, on the opening of the New House in Covent-Garden, has been so very violent and *uproarious*, that his conduct will afford matter of deliberation in our courts of law. The new prices, and the annual or private boxes, are the subjects of John's complaints; the former he considers as unjustifiable, and the latter as not proper, for moral reasons, to be tolerated in a British place of public entertainment. Various opinions are given for and against the Proprietors. Attalus sets out with an eulogy on the New Theatre, which is too expressive of his partiality. He calls it 'a structure which stands the *greatest* ornament of the British capital:' but, though it does credit to the architect, we should be sorry if it could be said that the noblest specimen of architecture in our grand metropolis was a play-house. Attalus treats the opponents the new prices with contempt, as being composed of the lowest classes; and he contends that the shilling and the sixpence, advanced in the price of admission to the Boxes and the Pit, were justified by the expences of the Proprietors in the new erection, as well as by the decreased value of money: asserting also that, if Drury-Lane theatre had been standing, the demand would still have been made. He does not enter into the question of the private boxes, against which so many *placards* are directed; nor into any details respecting the nightly expences, and the receipts of a full house.

The author of the *Considerations*, after having given a well-compressed history of the Stage, and a view of the present state of the law respecting country-theatres, adverts to the case of the theatres of the metropolis, which are not under the same regulations, and introduces the case of the New Theatre:

'The contests between the proprietors of the new theatre in Covent-Garden, and the audiences which have hitherto frequented that house, have displayed no small degree of violence and pertinacity. I proceed to enquire, whether there be any justifiable ground of complaint on either side; and if there be, in what manner it may be most prudently removed by the hand of authority. Such an investigation

may perhaps tend to elucidate the general principles on which the drama ought to be regulated in the present state of the metropolis.

'After the remarkable concurrence of calamities which destroyed the two chief theatres by fire, it became obvious, that expedition in rebuilding either of them would be doubly compensated by profit. The experienced proprietors of Covent-Garden possessed a great advantage over those of Drury-Lane in the clearness and disembarrassment of their accounts. They therefore seized the favourable opportunity; opened a scheme which readily met with subscribers, and proceeded instantly to put it into execution. In consequence, a most ingenious young architect, whose reputation depended on the attempt, was judiciously selected; and the new edifice arose with unexampled rapidity, and in an admirable style of exterior beauty and grandeur. So far the conduct of the proprietors, though perfectly consonant to their private interest, seemed to demand general approbation. But when the night of opening the theatre arrived, many circumstances, of a totally different complexion, presented themselves. The prices of admission to the pit and boxes were raised; the interior of the house was even larger, and less adapted to hearing plays than that of the preceding structure; the public, in general, was excluded from a whole tier of boxes, whose privacy was secured by new and singular means; and lastly, a band of foreigners was engaged, at most exorbitant salaries, to sing in a language unknown to ninety-nine hundredths of the audience.

'It is not very surprising, that some or all these causes should excite on the first night a clamour of disapprobation. That clamour has since risen to outrage. The proprietors, after attempting explanation by various methods in vain, have opposed force to force; and thus we have seen an unprecedented spectacle of hostility between those who live by the stage, and those who contribute to its support. It must be a very strong case indeed which can justify the proprietors, in point of policy as well as of justice, in thus making head against their natural patrons: accordingly they rely in the first instance on a very high authority, that of a patent from the Crown. It unfortunately happens, however, that the public are pretty much in the dark with respect to the history, nature, and contents, of that important document.'—

'The patent is clearly a monopoly, and monopolies are established not for the benefit of the holders, but for that of the public. If therefore the patent in question be not regulated by such principles as I have here supposed, it ought to be instantly quashed; and there is no doubt but that His Majesty's advisers would much rather recommend such a measure, than suffer his royal authority to be used as a cloak for imposition.'

By this statement, it will be seen that the author does not enlist on the side of the proprietors, and that Attalus is not justified in restricting the opposition to the mob. In the first place, the accuracy of the public statement is called in question, and then the authority of the proprietors, under the patent, to demand the new prices. It is added:

'Let

'Let these prices be proved to be ever so fair, equitable, and legal; yet the time and manner of advancing them must be considered as singularly injudicious. It had every appearance of imposition, to raise the price of an article, at the very moment, when the only possible competitor was taken out of the market.'

The size of the New Theatre is disapproved, as being too large for the audience to *hear* plays. The *private boxes* are said 'to be made in open defiance of public decency;' and it is also objected that 'the house has not the air of a British theatre; which, in its very appearance, ought to breathe the freedom and manliness of our national character.' The complaint against the introduction of Italian singers we need not examine, as this point is abandoned.

Though the author does not wholly vindicate the incessant *row* that has been kept up at the Theatre, he rather pleads for the populace:

'One or two remarks are due in justice to them; as first, that they had, at least in the outset, some right on their side; secondly, that they committed no very extraordinary, or destructive acts of violence; and lastly, that they were irritated by a kind of conduct, on the part of the proprietors, as unprecedented, as it was indecorous.'

Severe reprehension, it is here thought, attaches to the Proprietors; the suspension of the patent is recommended; and new regulations, with a new plan, are suggested. We interfere not in this contest: but however the question at issue may be decided, it is evident from this last pamphlet, that it is not merely an affair of the *mob*.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 26. *A few Remarks explanatory of the Motives which guided the Operations of the British Army, during the late short Campaign in Spain.* By Brigadier-General Henry Clinton, Adjutant-General to the Army late under the Command of Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, K.B. 8vo. 1s. Egerton.

With the glow of friendship, and with 'high respect for the memory of that great Soldier' Sir John Moore, Brigadier-General Clinton here endeavours to dispel the shade of imputation which has been cast on Sir John, with reference to his forward move from Salamanca, and to the route and mode of his final retreat. It has been sufficiently shewn in Mr. Moore's narrative of his brother's Campaign, (see our Review for September,) that the representations made to Sir John at Salamanca, with regard to the position of the enemy's several corps, and to the spirit of the Spaniards, at the time of his advance to Sahagun, fully justified that measure; which Gen. Clinton defends on the same grounds. As to the direction of the retreat, by Corunna instead of Vigo, it is remarked: 'such was the state of the army, that it was an object of the very first importance, to shorten its march as much as possible; the distance from Lugo to Vigo is just double that from Lugo to Corunna; and, secondly, had Sir John Moore marched by the direct road to Vigo, *i. e.* by Mellid, he must have resolved to abandon the whole of his artillery, as that road was not

practicable for guns or carriages of any sort.—He always looked to the probability of having to fight a battle before he could re-embark; and in that view, he probably would not, even under more pressing circumstances, have been reconciled to abandon his artillery; he therefore gave the preference to Corunna with all its disadvantages, and sent an express for the removal of the transports.' With respect to the *expedition* used on this occasion, the Brigadier urges similar reasons to those which have been developed in the above mentioned *Narrative*; and when it is recollected that the vastly superior force of the enemy reached Astorga only the day after Sir John Moore's last division quitted it,—and that French officers have acknowleged Bonaparte's astonishment and vexation to have been equally great, on finding that an army had thus escaped him, on the destruction of which he had reckoned as a certainty,—we do not see how it can be denied that the desperate nature of the case required the desperate efforts which were made, with all their sad consequences.

Art. 27. *Observations on the Movements of the British Army in Spain;* in Reply to Brigadier-General H. Clinton's Statement. By a British Officer. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

Not only the conduct of Sir John Moore, but even the correctness of B. G. Clinton's statements, are arraigned by this anonymous opponent; who declares that, in the Brigadier's pamphlet, 'some facts were misrepresented, many circumstances suppressed, and the whole so strangely distorted, that the most ordinary occurrence is sometimes unintelligible, even to the best informed reader;' who talks of 'illiberal and unfounded accusations' against the Spaniards, and of their having been treated with *calumny and abuse*, with *arrogance and contempt*, with *insult and injustice*; and who represents that 'we depended, for our safety, on the rapidity of our flight; not on the vigour of our arms. We fled with precipitation, through the strong and very defensible passes of Gallicia, and sacrificed, without remorse, our men and our reputation.'

After these strong prefatory remarks, the writer proceeds to controvert the points urged in the Brigadier's pamphlet: but these *Observations* also appeared before the publication of Mr. Moore's *Narrative*; which, we think, affords an ample reply to them, and must give this 'officer' himself a different view of the subject, unless he be so much more anxious for the character of the Spaniards than for that of his countrymen, that he will admit no charges against the former, and no justifications of the latter.

The writer chiefly and positively insists on the practicability of the British army having maintained itself in the mountainous country of Gallicia, and disputed every inch of ground, in spite of the immense numerical superiority of the French, and of the alleged want of provisions. As to the former difficulty, he adverts to it as little as if he seriously adopted the vulgar saying that "one Englishman can always beat three Frenchmen:" but we would ask what would have been the consequences of the battle of Talavera, (making it as splendid a victory as we can,) if the French had been able subsequently to pour in such reinforcements of fresh troops as they could have produced against

against Sir John Moore?—With regard to provisions, the author makes the extraordinary assertion that '*the army was never really in want of them*;' and he contends against the position that they could not be procured, on the ground that the French pursuers were not under this privation: as if he did not know the great pre-eminence of their Commissariat, nor that they could as enemies enforce those supplies which the British as friends could only request, and were refused.

Respecting the abandonment of the artillery if the route to Vigo had been taken, as alleged by Brig. Clinton, the 'British officer' says:

'Here I should be wanting in truth, if I did not broadly state this important and extraordinary fact. When the Commander in Chief ordered the leading columns to march to Santiago, and from thence upon Vigo, it was his intention that the artillery should march direct upon Corunna, while the infantry re-embarked at Vigo: so that we here find, notwithstanding General Clinton's assertion, with regard to the determination not to abandon the artillery, *even under more pressing circumstances*, that the General in Chief had decided to separate it entirely from the army.'

To this statement, as a matter of fact, we cannot reply: but if the first determination were wrong, as it is most severely described to be, shall the General be censured for having seen his error, and corrected it?

It is here asserted 'that the fleet anchored in the Bay of Corunna in the afternoon of the 14th of January; the following day was particularly favourable for our purpose, and yet no steps were taken even for re-embarking horses and baggage, until the morning of the 16th: so that more than thirty hours elapsed before any active measures were taken for the removal of the army.' In Mr. Moore's *Narrative*, however, p. 208, we are expressly told that on the 14th and 15th "the sick, artillery, dismounted cavalry, and horses, were incessantly embarking."

We think that the author of this pamphlet should not have concealed his name; and that, except perhaps for this reason, it required some notice from B. Gen. Clinton.

NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 28. *The Young Naval Hero*; or Hints to Parents and Guardians, on the Subject of educating and preparing Young Gentlemen for His Majesty's Navy. 8vo. 2s 6d. Egerton.

From the dedication of these hints, we learn that they are the production of Captain Frederick Watkins, of the navy; and the rank and experience of this gentleman confer on them an *à priori* recommendation, which will be confirmed by the internal evidence of their good sense and propriety. In addition to the suggestions and information, which will prove very useful to all parents and guardians who may design to send their sons or wards to sea, some advice to the young midshipman is subjoined, which it will be highly for his advantage to consult and to follow.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 29. *Sermons for the Use of Families*; selected by James Hews Bransby. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards, Longman and Co.

We cannot more properly convey an idea of these volumes to our readers than in the language of the editor:

'This publication is designed to supply Unitarian Christians with serious impressive discourses, unexceptionable to them in point of religious doctrine, and calculated to assist in forming and strengthening habits of enlightened devotion and active virtue. — Of the sermons which compose these volumes, twelve are selected from works already before the public, and four are now first printed from original manuscripts. These are assigned to their respective authors in the table of contents. The other fourteen are the productions of different dissenting ministers.'

The discourses are generally plain, sensible, and impressive, but perhaps not always sufficiently *plain* for the end proposed. They may, we think, be suitably read in other families than those who chuse to denominate themselves Unitarians, since they contain not much that might be regarded as peculiar to that distinction. While the importance of Divine aid is implied, both for the natural and the spiritual life, the writers perplex themselves somewhat unnecessarily in confining the terms, *Spirit* and *Holy spirit*, to those miraculous gifts and powers, which were diffused in the first ages of Christianity.

Art. 30. *The Goodness of God acknowledged in Recovery from Sickness*; Two Discourses, by the late Rev. William Turner of Wakefield. 12mo. 1s. Longman and Co.

By permission of the family, Mr. Bransby made these two sermons a part of the two volumes of *select discourses* which are above noticed, but they are here edited separately for more general use. They are devotional and practical, and may be read with advantage in health or in sickness.

Art. 31. *Two Letters to "A Barrister,"* containing Strictures on his Work in three Parts intitled "Hints to the Public and the Legislature, on the Nature and Effects of Evangelical Preaching." By a Looker on. 8vo. 2s. Black and Co.

We may be allowed to object to the propriety of the signature of this writer, with as much reason as he quarrels with the title of the Barrister's publication; for he is not a mere *Looker-on*, but a Soldier in the ranks, and fights with as much acrimony as any individual in the whole battalion. He charges the opposers of the Evangelical dogmas with '*perverse* ingenuity,' and would affix on the Barrister 'no desirable share of *culpability*,' in addition to dogmatical assurance. We forgive the displeasure which *we* have excited in his breast: but we must ask him whether these epithets should proceed from the pen of an impartial and calm Looker-on?

When this letter-writer confesses that the Evangelical Preachers, 'by a *high-coloured exposition* of their favourite tenets, furnish a shadow of

of plausibility to invidious representations,' he in a great measure abandons the cause which he undertakes to defend; since in this *high colouring* lies the whole subject of the controversy. Let them lower their terms, and bring their exposition within the bounds of definable meaning, and the warfare with them will cease. We have cautiously abstained from taxing the Methodists with immorality; we believe that, as a body, they are not open to the charge; and we have merely adverted to the natural tendency of the doctrine of moral substitution or transfer, and to the 'high colouring' which they often employ in recommending it. The point ought to be decided without the auxiliaries of mutual reviling. Are the expressions in scripture, on which this doctrine is supposed to rest, to be taken literally or figuratively? If literally, the question is at once settled in favour of the Evangelical Preachers: but if this literal acceptation involves an absolute impossibility, we would ask whether the texts which speak of *ransom, bearing sin,* &c. must not be explained in a qualified sense? We are as much *Lookers-on* as this letter-writer *can* be, and have no wish that is adverse to *evangelical truth.*

By the tone of confident superiority which this gentleman assumes over the Barrister, in the second letter, by the charge of 'dogmatical assurance,' and by the hint that he is not *artis ratiocinandi magister peritissimus,* we were inclined to suppose that this writer had actually found the Barrister tripping, and was about to win a most complete triumph over him: but we could scarcely avoid laughing when the Looker-on came to exhibit that thundering logic by which his adversary was to be prostrated to the dust. This *magister peritissimus* of the dialectic art adduces the stale and childish argument for *belief without knowlege,* that we are forced to believe many things without knowing any thing of their causation. If, however, he examines this matter, he will find the whole evidence against him. We believe, for instance, the union of the soul with the body, because we know that such an union really subsists: but of the mode or manner of that union we know nothing, and therefore believe nothing. We know again that by an act of volition we can move our limbs, and therefore have no doubt about the fact: but in what way the mind operates on the brain, so as to direct this motion of the limbs, we are ignorant, and *this mode* is consequently beyond the range of faith. The same may be asserted of all those instances which this author adduces. Even the belief of a Deity is in this very predicament. Nature and Revelation point out the necessity of his existence, and this necessity we believe: but the mode and manner of the divine subsistence we have no means of apprehending; and therefore the mode of his existence is not, and never in this world can be, a definite article of faith.

This distinction is necessary to an accurate comprehension of the subject. We defy this writer or any other person to adduce a single fact, either in nature or revelation, to prove the contrary. The apostle Peter (2 Peter i. 5.) clearly intimates the connection between *Knowlege* and *Faith.* Of effects, our knowlege is extensive and our belief in course equally so; but of causes we are much in the dark; and faith is by our total ignorance rendered utterly impossible.

Instead

Instead of reprobating the logic of other men, we advise this writer to review his own mode of reasoning; and then he will not require to be told by us that his pamphlet contains very little which seriously merits a reply.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *The Jubilee*; or John Bull in his Dotage. A grand national Pantomime; as it was to have been acted by His Majesty's Subjects, on the 25th of October, 1809. 8vo. 2s. Sherwood and Co.

It is impossible to read with gravity this ludicrous *mélange*, this dramatic chaos; and John Bull is not so much in his dotage, but that he will be able to relish the broad farce of this whimsical piece. The laugh is widely extended; our political characters and political blunders are exhibited in a farcical kind of magic lanthorn; and the very parties caricatured must smile at their own figures on the wall. Our good Monarch is represented in the character of King Lear, looking up to the skies, and saying,

> "Here am I, ye gods! a poor old man,
> More sinn'd against than sinning!—
> Oh! how sharper than a serpent's tooth
> It is to have—*a stupid Ministry!*"

Colonel W—d—e, habited as a Piedmontese show-man, introduces his galantie-show:

'Now you shall see Johnny Bull turned into a milch cow, with an udder as big as the cupola of St. Peter's!—Now the Prussian suck, bygar! Now the Austrian suck! Now the Neapolitan suck! Now the Sardinian suck! Now the Portuguese suck! Now the Russian suck! Now the Swede suck! And now, parbleu, they suck her dry, while her own Calves are looking on, in wonder!—All as natural as the life!

> A brave galantie show—
> A very pretty fancy, *tout nouveau!*"

The author would perhaps say of the morality of this age as Juvenal said of his days,

> *Quando uberior vitiorum copia!*

Art. 33. *A comparative View of the Plans of Education*, as detailed in the Publications of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster. The second Edition, with Remarks on Dr. Bell's "Madras School," and Hints to the Managers and Committees of Charity and Sunday Schools, on the Practicability of extending such Institutions upon Mr. Lancaster's Plan. By Joseph Fox. 8vo. pp. 72. 1s. 6d. Darton and Co. 1809.

The plans both of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster being evident improvements on the usual system of education, the discussion of their respective merits, while it ascertains the portion of commendation due to each, will help to diffuse a knowlege of their importance. For this reason, we were pleased to receive the comparative statement now before us, which fully ascertains the share of invention that belongs to each gentleman. In consequence of some attempts to keep Mr. Lancaster in the back ground, Mr. Fox urges his paramount claims

claims in opposition to Dr. Bell, who is charged with a *jealous* silence respecting the truly comprehensive plan of education *actually carried into effect* by Mr. L. The difference between the first and the last editions of Dr. B.'s pamphlet is duly noticed; and in order to exclude him from the merit of having projected a plan of *national* education, calculated to include *all* the poor, Mr. Fox animadverts on the restricted views of that clergyman: who pronounced "schemes for the universal diffusion of knowlege to be *Utopian*," and intimated that by education the minds of "*those who are doomed to the drudgery of daily labour* would be raised above their condition." This unlucky remark, from the pen of a man who had been employed in extending the benefits of tuition to the miserable *half casts* of India, and had taken merit to himself for having facilitated their instruction, meets with no quarter from Mr. Fox; who asks Dr. Bell whether poor Britons are not as much intitled to the benefits of knowlege, as the out-cast refuse of Asiatic population; or whether South Britons are more likely to have their heads turned by a little education than the natives of North Britain?

Dr. Bell is certainly deserving of much praise for the hints which he has given, in his account of the Madras School: but, in regard to a complete plan of national education, he must concede the palm to Mr. Lancaster, who has done more perhaps than any other individual to spread knowlege with facility and economy among the multitude.

'The improvements in education,' says Mr. Fox, 'which Mr. Lancaster claims as his invention, are:—

'1. That by his system of order and rewards, together with the division of the school into classes, and the assistance of the monitors, ONE MASTER IS ABLE TO CONDUCT A SCHOOL OF ONE THOUSAND CHILDREN. Page 23.

'2. That by printing a spelling-book, or any other lessons for reading, in a large type, upon one side of the paper, and pasting the sheets thus printed, on a pasteboard, they may, when suspended to a nail against the wall, be read by any number of children; a method whereby ONE BOOK WILL SERVE FOR A WHOLE SCHOOL, instead of each child having a book of its own. Page 55.

'3. That by the introduction of writing upon slates, and one boy spelling to his whole class any certain word, the boys in the class will instantly write it, going on in this manner for an hour or more; so that boys may write and spell one hundred words in the course of a morning. A METHOD WHEREBY FIVE HUNDRED BOYS MAY SPELL AND WRITE THE SAME WORD AT THE SAME INSTANT OF TIME. Page 49.

'4. An entire new method of instruction in arithmetic, wholly superseding the former method of setting sums in ciphering books, or using books, as Walkinghame's, or Dilworth's Assistant for the four first rules. A plan, whereby ANY CHILD WHO CAN READ, MAY TEACH ARITHMETIC with the utmost certainty. Page 62.

'These are inventions concerning which not a syllable is to be found in Dr. Bell's Experiment made at the Male Asylum, Madras.

'5. Another most important circumstance is, that the expence of education is reduced to almost a comparative nothing. Schools for three hundred children may be supported at the expence of seven

shillings per annum each child, and for a greater number of children, the expence may be reduced to four shillings per annum each child. In the case of Mr. Lancaster's own school in the Borough Road, the expence did not exceed three shillings and six-pence per child, for the last year.'

These particulars cannot be too generally known; and the manner in which the author of this comparative view urges the subject is so impressive, that we shall transcribe it:

'I appeal to the benevolence and generosity of my countrymen, whose property and situation in life qualify them for usefulness on behalf of the rising generation. I wish to see an universal attempt made to instil into the minds of youth a sacred regard for the precepts of Divine truth, which can only be effected through the medium of education.

'The ignorance which so much prevails amongst the lower classes of the people, ought to be regarded as a national calamity, and is the great source of that depravity and vitiosity of manners which no serious mind can contemplate without the deepest regret. Schools may be established at a very small expence, and every child may be taught to read the HOLY SCRIPTURES; from which source, and from which source alone, mankind can derive that knowledge which, in this life, will direct them in the paths of morality and virtue, and make them wise unto salvation.

'Persons must judge for themselves as to the particular plan on which they will organize their schools; and, according to their views, adopt the limited plan of Dr. Bell, or the more extended one of Mr. Lancaster. By either method "Knowledge will be increased;" and the anxious desire expressed to Mr. Lancaster, by our VENERABLE MONARCH realized, THAT EVERY POOR CHILD IN THE NATION SHOULD BE ABLE TO READ THE BIBLE *.'

Mr. Fox advocates the cause of Mr. L. against the claims of

'* In the summer of 1805, when the Royal Family were at Weymouth, Mr. Lancaster had the honour of being noticed by his Majesty, and was commanded to wait upon him, in order that he might explain his plans of education. At this interview, which lasted about an hour and an half, were present, the King, the Queen, the Princesses, and the Duke of Kent, Mr. L. related his method of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. Their Majesties expressed the most lively interest in the descriptions Mr. L. gave of the business of each class, and made many enquiries as to all the minutiæ of the plan. The King was pleased to encourage Mr. L. to form schools in various parts of the Kingdom; and to assist him in this useful and important work, their Majesties immediately presented him with a considerable subscription, in which they were followed by their Royal Daughters, since then by the Prince of Wales, and the Royal Dukes, and these subscriptions have been regularly paid up to the present year.

'This solicitude of our beloved Monarch for the diffusion of knowledge amongst all ranks of his subjects, ought to operate as a powerful example; and to all those who wish well to the prosperity of the Nation, I would say, "Go ye, and do likewise."'

Dr.

Dr. B. with increasing energy, in the subjoined remarks on the fourth edition of Dr. B.'s work; and, in the Hints, the general adoption of *the British plan of education* is urged on the score of its superior comprehensiveness, as well as on the ground of the great saving both of expence and labour which it occasions. We highly applaud the benevolent zeal of this amiable writer.

SINGLE SERMONS *on the Jubilee.*

Art. 34. *The National Jubilee,* celebrative of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Reign of George the Third, politically and morally improved. By a Magistrate. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s. Matthews and Co.

This title affords no indication of a sermon: but, though the author has told "the truth," he has not given "the whole truth," by merely designating himself as a magistrate. We find that he is a Clergyman, as well as a Justice of the Peace; and in the former character, not in the latter, he has presented us with an animated and appropriate exposition of Matth. xxii. 21. in which he has distinctly unfolded the duties which we owe to the civil ruler, and to the King of kings, and has displayed the great importance of *religious principle* to the well-being of the social body. To excite our gratitude for the long life of our beloved Monarch, he compares him with the sovereigns who, from the Conquest, have filled the English throne; directs our attention to the great virtues which adorn his character; and holds him up to the veneration of every loyal subject, 'as *a good, a patriot, and a Christian King.*' To the most liberal and tolerant principles, this clergyman unites a zeal for "the things which are God's," and this part of his discourse is very impressive.—The sermon, we learn, was preached in a small village in Surrey.

Art. 35. *The Jubilee; or Motives for Thanksgiving and Congratulation, derived from a Consideration of the Character and Conduct of our Most Gracious Sovereign King George the Third,*—preached in the Chapel of the Foundling Hospital, on Wednesday, Oct. 25, 1809; being the Day on which His Majesty entered on the fiftieth Year of his Reign. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B.D., Morning Preacher to the said Charity, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

After having briefly adverted to the Jubilee year as instituted by Moses among the Jews, to the Secular Games of the Romans, and to the Jubilees of the Romish Church, this preacher proceeds to the occasion specified in the title. In delineating the character of our Sovereign, he will not be suspected of flattery, when he assures us that he 'has little to hope and nothing to fear.' Regarding the virtues and example of the Monarch as a ground of national thanksgiving, he enlarges with satisfaction on the mildness of his government,—on his diligent, regular, and indefatigable attention to the duties of his high station,—on his encouragement of agriculture and the arts,—on his private charater,—and on his reverence for religion.

Art. 36. *The Year of Jubilee considered,* in a Discourse delivered at the Unitarian Chapel in Essex-street, on Sunday, October 22, 1809. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Though this discourse was preached on the Sunday preceding the day of Jubilee, it naturally belongs to this class; and it has peculiar

merit, as it very fully explains the circumstances of the remarkable institution of the year of Jubilee among the Jews. We trace the outlines of this able preacher's explanations in Vol. II. (misprinted in a note Vol. IV.) of Jennings's Jewish Antiquities: but his remarks on the institution of the Jubilee are his own, and are eminently appropriate. Whether the word יובל, whence the word *Jubilee* is derived, signifies *a trumpet*, according to Parkhurst, or *liberty*, according to Josephus, or probably both, it is of little moment to inquire: but the celebration of a Jubilee every fiftieth year (Levit xxv. 10.) in which all debts were forgiven, prisoners and slaves liberated, and all the land was to remain uncultivated for that and the year following, or sabbatical year, is a circumstance which, if strictly observed, must not only occasion famine, but prove highly injurious to the soil, without the intervention of a miracle. Mr. Belsham may probably be right in his conjecture, that the appointment of the Jubilee year was intended to prevent the accumulation of property, so dangerous to civil liberty: but it does not appear that, from the settlement of the Israelites in the land of Canaan to the time of the Babylonish captivity, a single sabbatical or Jubilee year was observed (2 Chron. xxxvi. 21.); and it is hardly possible to conceive how a people could submit to so grievous 'an agrarian law.' By this ordinance, or legislative regulation, it was designed to preserve landed property *in statu quo*: but it is perhaps impracticable in the nature of things to effect this object. At the end of half a century, many families become extinct. It was perhaps discovered that the plan could not, without much confusion, be carried into execution, and it was therefore abandoned. As a typical appointment it is more rational to contemplate this celebration; in which view, it affords Mr. B. an opportunity for many sensible and pious remarks.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have certainly hitherto overlooked the publication of which Dr. H. reminds us; and the time which has now elapsed is an objection to the notice of it, unless its contents have a degree of interest and importance which would render the omission of it undesirable.

Mr. Bailey's work will most probably appear in our next number.

The wish of X. Y. will be fulfilled in our next Appendix, to be published with the Review for December.

R. S.'s impatience is natural on his part, but he little knows the extent of our labours, and the obstacles to which they are liable.

The letter signed *Vixen* seems to be very appropriately subscribed. We wish always to be polite to the fair sex, but we acknowlege that we congratulated ourselves that this fair correspondent was *no wife of ours*. She appears as if she would be more inclined to *pick a hole in our coats* than to mend one.

☞ Rev. for October, p. 162. l. 32. *del.* 'though,' before 'it.'

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1809.

ART. I. *The Life of George Romney, Esq.* By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. pp. 416. 2l. 2s. Boards. Payne. 1809.

EVEN the most general sketch of a powerful and original genius, from the hand of admiring yet judicious friendship, cannot fail to supply a variety of agreeable observations: but we must include Mr. Hayley in the complaint which we have had such frequent occasion to level against modern biographers, that they weaken the effect of their narrations by describing too much and relating too little; by exhibiting in desultory terms their own views of intellectual habits and moral characters instead of recording such acts and sayings of the party concerned, as might enable the reader to draw his own inferences on the subject. Not that we require, in every instance, the minute fidelity of Boswell in delineating Johnson; few, indeed, are the minds which could endure so close an inspection, and fewer still would reward us for the trouble of making it: but, wherever a character is to be portrayed, the writer falls far short of his undertaking, if he omits to mark the great peculiarities of the individual, not only in temper but in opinion,—in the education which formed his mind and the accidents which imparted its bias,—in the habits which either imperceptibly grew on him and overpowered his resolution, or in those which he laboured to acquire as the means of attaining excellence in his art or profession,—and above all in the judgment which he pronounced on every important topic to which his attention was seriously devoted.

Yet Mr. Hayley prides himself on the precision of his statements, and on the sacrifice which he sometimes has made of the feelings of friendship to the interests of truth. Here we have a still stronger objection, since he appears to us to have dwelt much more on the unhappy infirmities of his friend than on his great and acknowleged powers. It was indeed his painful duty, in writing the life of Romney, to describe him as subject to that nervous malady, that extreme

sensibility to trifles, which long obscured his happiness and finally clouded his reason: but, in speaking of such a painter, we should have expected him to employ other epithets, and other periphrases, than those which he has usually adopted and repeated almost *ad nauseam*; viz. — 'the *tender* artist,' — 'the tender and *apprehensive* artist,' (the latter is a favourite and frequent adjunct,) — 'the *sensitive* — the *timorous*,' — 'our beloved and *dejected* artist,' — 'the *interesting invalid*,' &c. Though such might be the character in which Romney presented himself to the restorative air of Eartham and the soothing friendship of Mr. Hayley, very different are the qualities with which that friend should have seen him invested, in contemplating his mind with the design of representing it to strangers and to posterity. The expectations of those young artists should have been considered, who will open the volume with sanguine hopes of discovering the recorded opinions of one of his most distinguished countrymen on the works of foreign art, which he frequently explored; and they will close it with the greater disappointment, from being informed that the professional discussions of Romney, of which no trace is here preserved, were eloquent, original, judicious, and so full of vehemence and enthusiasm that they frequently betrayed him into tears.

The apologies, too frequently urged by Mr. Hayley for inserting the letters of his friend on the subject of Eartham and its owner, would have been more properly applied to the numerous sonnets which crowd these quarto pages; and which have generally so little connection with the main subject, that they might be not improperly denominated, in the old-fashioned phrase, "poems on several occasions." The author has also re-edited his poetical essays on painting, first published in 1778, in the form of Epistles to Romney;—an insufficient reason, we think, for including them in a life of that painter. Even this unexpected accession is, however, in our opinion, preferable to the tame elegiac stanzas composed by a godson of Romney, 'aged ten years and eight months,' at the instigation of Mr. Hayley, who wished to afford him an opportunity of displaying his poetical genius to the public. They are just what might be expected, full "of Pindus and the Aonian maids."

We will be no longer detained by extrinsic circumstances from attending to the distinguished subject of this memoir.—George Romney was born in December 1734, at Dalton in Furness, a singular and picturesque tract of high and low land in the county of Lancaster, and died in November 1802. His father, who is sometimes styled a cabinet-maker, and sometimes

times a builder, a merchant, and a farmer, wished his son to succeed him in business: but, though the boy discovered, at an early age, a great passion for mechanics, the symptoms of higher endowments could not long be concealed. He was enthusiastically fond of music, and chance directed his youthful mind to the sister art of painting:

'The fortunate incident, which led him to a cultivation of the particular art, that he was destined to profess, and to adorn, was simply this: In his youth he observed a great singularity of countenance in a stranger at church; his parents, to whom he spoke of it, desired him to describe the person—he seized a pencil, and delineated the features from memory with such a strength of resemblance, as amazed and delighted his affectionate parents. The applause, that he received from this accidental performance, excited him to draw with more serious application.'

The talent thus elicited received instruction and encouragement from an ingenious but unfortunate gentleman of Cumberland, who settled in the neighbourhood; whose name was John Williamson; and who, to the study of natural philosophy, music, and mechanics, added a firm belief in the possibility of obtaining, and consequently an eager pursuit after, the mysteries of alchymy. Nay, he was in idea on the very point of success in his search for the philosopher's stone, when his wife unfortunately prevailed on him to join a party of female friends, and the furnace blew up in his absence! The innocent lady became hateful to the disappointed speculator, who resolved on a total separation;—a circumstance by which it is supposed that the mind of Romney might possibly have been influenced, in an unfortunate and very exceptionable part of his conduct. — A cabinet-maker, named Wright, under whose care young Romney was then placed, recommended to his father that he should receive the advantages of tuition from a regular painter; who soon, however, decamped, with the assistance of his pupil, on a matrimonial excursion to Scotland. The student followed this example of marriage, though not of elopement, and united himself, in his 22d year, to a wife who bore him two children, but who had soon the misfortune to become, in Mr. Hayley's language, 'the object of his inquietude;' not from any impropriety in her conduct, but from an apprehension rather hastily adopted by the artist, that "a young man married is a man that's marr'd." He considered the conjugal yoke as an intolerable incumbrance to the wings of soaring genius, and totally threw it off. On returning from his first professional tour, in which he painted portraits for four guineas each, he gave thirty-pounds, out of a hundred which he realized, to 'an unoffending partner:' but from that

time till the approach of his last illness, (a period of at least five and forty years,) it does not appear that he ever saw or in any way noticed his consort. We presume however that, when he was in the receipt of a large professional income, he shared it in some proportion with this faithful but deserted wife; who proved how little she deserved her fate, by the forgiveness which she extended to him, and the affectionate care with which she nursed him, at the distressing close of his life. Surely Mr. Hayley owed it to the memory of his friend, to state with distinctness that she was not wholly neglected by him in his prosperous days; and the fact of his contributing to her support should not have been left to conjecture.

After having visited York, Lancaster, and some other northern towns, where he seems to have attained considerable practice, Romney arrived in London in 1762. He soon became a candidate for the prizes distributed by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Sciences; and, though he failed in a competition with Mortimer, he obtained much credit for his painting, and deserves still more for a candid admission of the justice of the verdict pronounced against him. In 1764, he travelled for six weeks on the continent, where he formed an acquaintance with that pleasing landscape painter, Vernet: but we are left uninformed with respect to his observations on what he saw. On resuming his situation in London, we find him gradually rising to the highest eminence as a portrait painter, and 'described in the catalogue [of the exhibition in Maiden Lane] as residing at the Golden Head in Great Newport Street; *a Street endeared to the lovers of art* by having been inhabited by two great rivals in public favour, Romney and Reynolds.' When he changed that residence for a spacious mansion in Cavendish Square, this is not only *endeared* to Mr. Hayley as the house of his friend, but also by the recollection that it formerly belonged to 'Mr. Coates, an eminent painter in crayons;' and it is now occupied by Mr. Shee, 'who has distinguished himself by equal application to the pencil and the lyre.' In 1776, the author's friendship with Romney commenced: it appears to have lasted for the life of the latter, whose irritable temper might occasionally ruffle its serenity without disturbing its constancy; and to have largely contributed to the intellectual pleasure and improvement of both.

We have little more of incident to communicate respecting this great painter, except that he proceeded in the full career of success, always regretting the necessity of exclusively devoting his time to portrait-painting; by which in a single year

year he cleared £3635, and sometimes painting an historical or fancy subject, for the Shakspeare Gallery, or for some intimate friend, but more commonly imagining, projecting, designing, sketching, grouping,—in a word *preparing* on a scale too vast to admit of much perfect execution. He enjoyed the conversation of the learned, and copied the features of the great: Lord Thurlow in particular is said to have sportively observed that the town was divided between Reynolds and Romney, and that he was himself "of the Romney faction." The timidity of the nervous painter did not disqualify him from pouring forth his ideas with energy and animation, when discussing subjects of art with that distinguished character; who will be placed in a new light before many of our readers, by the following sentences:

'Lord Thurlow had a great personal regard for Romney, and was highly pleased with his conversation, when his own affability had so completely dissipated the natural reserve of the painter, that he could not only converse, but even dispute without apprehension upon points of art with this exalted personage, who was singularly formidable as an antagonist in any conference, from the force of his ideas, and the fearless facility, with which he expressed them. His memory was richly stored with sublime and pathetic passages from all the great poets; and he loved to expatiate on such as afforded inviting subjects to the pencil. He was willing to encourage painting; and expressed a strong desire of Romney's executing for him a large picture of Orpheus and Eurydice from Virgil; but on discussing the subject together, the ideas of the peer, and those of the painter were so different concerning the mode of treating it on canvas, that Romney despaired of pleasing a patron whose fancy appeared to him very far from being in harmony with his own, and he therefore never began the picture.'

But why these general terms,—why may we not be *let into the secret* of the discordant views entertained by such able judges? The debate could not have failed to enlighten us on a very pleasing subject.—We thank Mr. Hayley for the particulars, though scanty and unsatisfactory, with which he indulges us on another topic, extracted from a letter of his own written at the time, (November 1787,) and since returned to him on the decease of the person addressed:

'I must try to amuse you, as well as my extreme haste will allow, by a little history of Romney, Carwardine, and the Chancellor.—Carwardine asked his great patron to subscribe to the Shakespeare, shewing him the papers.

'Lord Thurlow.—What! is Romney at work for it? He cannot paint in that style, it is out of his way; by God, he'll make a balderdash business of it.

'CARWARDINE.—Your Lordship does not yet thoroughly know Mr. Romney; for he has such a native modesty, that it prevents his shewing, before your Lordship, his real powers.

'LORD THURLOW.—Have you seen his design?

'CARWARDINE.—No! my Lord, he shews it to no mortal yet.

'LORD THURLOW.—I should be glad to talk to him about it—bring him to dine with me to day.

'CARWARDINE.—I certainly will, my Lord.

'Carwardine brings this dialogue fresh to me. Away we post to the PITTORE.

'CARWARDINE.—Romney! I have been talking to the Chancellor about you, and your great picture: he says you cannot paint from Shakespeare.

'ROMNEY.—Does he? I should be glad to talk to him about it, for he has some grand ideas in his gloomy head.

'CARWARDINE.—I rejoice to hear you say so. You shall talk with him to-day, for you are already engaged to dine with him.

'ROMNEY.—Are you in earnest? But I cannot go.

'CARWARDINE.—You must go. It is the happiest incident for your grand work, that could have arisen.

'In short, Carwardine talked the terrified artist into spirits sufficient to make him go, with some pleasure, to this aweful dinner, of which you shall hear more in my next.'

'Lincoln's Inn Fields, November 12, 1787.

'You will be curious to know how our friend Romney past his day with the Chancellor. Carwardine tells me, their dialogue was highly entertaining to him, as they debated several points with warmth and spirit on both sides. They had no intruder to disturb the trio, and continued with their great host till ten in the evening.'

Lord Thurlow one day said to the artist, "Mr. Romney, before you paint Shakspeare, I advise you to read him," and it was true that he had probably never read a single act of his plays regularly through,—so apt was he to indulge his fancy in desultory excursion, and to pursue without method the accidental impression of the moment.

In speaking of the patronage accorded to Romney by celebrated persons, we must assign a high rank to the beautiful and accomplished Lady Hamilton, whom he regarded with an affection almost paternal. To this lady Mr. Hayley appears to have spoken, in the character of his friend, without the least exaggeration, when he says,

"Thy smile to me was inspiration's beam,
Thy charms my model, and thy taste my guide,"

since Romney took her portrait in great variety of characters,—as Circe, Calypso, a Magdalen, a Bacchante, Sensibility, Miranda, Joan of Arc, Cassandra, St. Cecilia, a Wood-nymph, a Pythian

a Pythian Priestess, &c. The subsequent letter to Mr. H. will give a very strong idea of his regard for his favourite model:

'My dear Friend, 'August 8, 1791.

'As you will probably wonder at my silence, it will be necessary to give you some account of the cause. In my last letter I think I informed you, that I was going to dine with Sir William and his Lady. In the evening of that day, there were collected several people of fashion to hear her sing. She performed, both in the serious and comic, to admiration, both in singing and acting; but her Nina surpasses every thing I ever saw, and I believe, as a piece of acting, nothing ever surpassed it. The whole company were in an agony of sorrow. Her acting is simple, grand, terrible, and pathetic. My mind was so much heated, that I was for running down to Eartham to fetch you up to see her. But alas! soon after, I thought I discovered an alteration in her conduct to me. A coldness and neglect seemed to have taken place of her repeated declarations of regard for me. They left town to make many visits in the country. I expect them again the latter end of this week, when my anxiety (for I have suffered very much) will be either relieved, or increased, as I find her conduct. It is highly probable that none of the pictures will be finished, except I find her more friendly, than she appeared the last time I saw her. I had it in contemplation to run down for a day or two, before she returned to town to bring you up with me, and I mentioned it to her. She said do so, but in a cold manner, though a fortnight before, when I said I would do so, she was very desirous that I should bring you to town. You will see every thing is in great uncertainty, but it may turn out better than I expect.

'So far I had written before I received your kind letter, and now I have just time to give you a very short answer to it.

'I shall certainly make you a visit, and I would rather visit you when you have no company.

'Ever yours, G. R.'

This picture of "the Quarrel" must not be left without its companion on the more agreeable subject of "the Reconciliation:"

'My dear Friend, 'Monday Evening, August 29, 1791.

'I have not had it in my power to write any satisfactory answer to your first letter, till within these few days. Cassandra came to town the 16th, and I did not see her till the 20th, so you may suppose how my feelings must have suffered; she appointed to sit on the 23d, and has been sitting almost every day since; and means to sit once or twice a day, till she leaves London, which will be about Wednesday or Thursday, in the next week.

'When she arrived to sit, she seemed more friendly than she had been, and I began a picture of her, as a present for her mother. I was very successful with it; for it is thought the most beautiful head I have painted of her yet. Now indeed, I think, she is as cordial with me as ever; and she laments very much, that she is to leave England without seeing you.

'I take it excessively kind in you to enter so deeply into my distresses. Really my mind has suffered so very much, that my health was much affected, and I was afraid, I should not have had power to have painted any more from her; but since she has resumed her former kindness, my health and spirits are quite recovered.

'She performed in my house last week, singing and acting before some of the nobility with most astonishing powers: she is the talk of the whole town, and really surpasses every thing both in singing and acting, that ever appeared. Gallini offered her two thousand pounds a year, and two benefits, if she would engage with him, on which Sir William said pleasantly, that he had engaged her for life.

'Believe me yours most affectionately,

G. R.'

Romney's unhappy propensity to suspect unkindness, neglect, and coldness in his friends poisoned all the enjoyments of his life. Even when a young student, he entertained the horrible spectre of plots against his safety, and imputed them not only to the permitted assassins of Italy, but to his countrymen, his contemporaries, his fellow-students, and his friends. His letters to Mr. Hayley, whom he visited annually for many years, seldom conclude without an apology for offences supposed to have been given to his best friend by the violence and heat of his temper. His whole conversation must have been divided between offering affronts and atoning for them, and his mind perpetually uneasy in the consciousness of rude asperity in himself, or the imagination of uncharitable misconception in others. The fanciful but elegant remark of Mr. Flaxman, on the genius of his brother-artist, might with equal truth be applied to his temper; it "bore a strong resemblance to the scenes he was born in: like them it partook of the grand and beautiful; and like them also, the bright sunshine and enchanting prospects of his fancy were occasionally overspread with mist and gloom." Indeed, the parallel might be extended farther, to the awful burst of the wintry tempest, and the fierce explosion of conflicting elements. We have already intimated that the excessive sensibility of Romney terminated in mental derangement; and this pitiable catastrophe, while it consoles mediocrity for the absence of that delicate organization which is designated by the name of genius, should warn the highly-gifted mortal against that indiscriminate indulgence even of the purest feelings, which degenerates at last into wayward selfishness, and may become equally fatal to the happiness and the virtue of the possessor.

Those parts of the present memoir which relate to the kindness exhibited by Romney to the son of Mr. Hayley, a most promising and ingenious youth, who was placed under

the tuition of our great sculptor Flaxman, are very interesting. He died at an early period; but not till he had given unquestionable proofs of genius combined with an ardent love of his art, which could not have failed to lead him to great excellence in it. The feelings of a father are not ostentatiously displayed, but they sometimes burst forth with unaffected pathos. We wish to pass lightly over the subject; but our readers would not easily forgive the omission of the following passage:

'The health of Romney revived a little, as the year 1797 advanced; he began to amuse his fancy with the prospect of his own intended building, and also with that of his friend (Mr. Hayley's villa) in Sussex, to whose habitation he had promised to escort both the architect and the young sculptor. The trio of artists arrived at Eartham on the 13th of April, and after a day of repose, proceeded to the sea-coast, where they all took a lively interest in laying the foundations of a very small marine villa, in the Hamlet of Felpham. Its proprietor vainly hoped that it might conduce for many years, to the health and social enjoyments of the party, whose kind hearts gave utterance to the most fervent good wishes on its commencement. How merciful to man is that dispensation of Heaven, which allows him not to see far into futurity.

'Our architectural ceremony was a cheerful scene of social delight, from the hope that all who shared in it, and particularly the two youngest might recollect and revisit the spot with pleasure, through a length of time to come; but what anguish of heart must have seized the joyous group engaged in founding this favorite little structure, had any prescience informed them that all the three artists, taking so kind an interest in the fabrick, would be sunk in the grave within the brief period of six years from its foundation! I am now sitting alone in the dwelling, which their kindness has endeared, and which their ingenuity has adorned; and I feel a tender gratification in employing the uncertain remnant of my days on such literary works, as may faithfully commemorate the talents and the virtues of those who still speak to me in their works, and here daily remind me both of their genius and their affection.'

Some engravings after several pictures of the great artist here described are properly introduced into this record of his life and genius. They are twelve in number, and must not be omitted in our notice; though, in order to convey a correct idea of them to our readers, some first-rate painter should pronounce critically on their merits, and the most skilful engraver must be employed to make the necessary *extracts*. Among them, we have three likenesses of Romney, taken at different ages by himself, and another copied from a medallion moulded by the young sculptor already mentioned; together with three portraits of Lady Hamilton, in the characters of Sensibility, Miranda, and Cassandra, charmingly engraved by Caroline Watson.

Watson.—We much regret that Mr. Hayley has not followed the example set by the biographer of Sir Joshua Reynolds, in presenting at one view a catalogue of all Romney's pictures, with a short history of them, and a direction to the several places where they may be viewed at present.

ART. II. *Parliamentary Logick*: to which are subjoined two Speeches delivered in the House of Commons of Ireland, and other Pieces, by the Right Honourable William Gerard Hamilton. With an Appendix, containing Considerations on the Corn Laws, by Samuel Johnson, LL.D. never before printed. Crown 8vo. pp. 253. 8s. Boards. Payne. 1808.

IT is a well-known observation of Lord Chesterfield, that the art of oratory may be learned like that of shoe-making. The leading article in the present volume, which is founded on this observation, contains a vast variety of practical lessons, calculated to form not only a very expert artisan in weaving the fabric of a parliamentary speech, but also a most judicious supervisor of the complicated machinery of Debates in the House of Commons. In both capacities, the right honourable author appears to have pursued his studies and *served his time* with uncommon ardour and perseverance; and though he never acquired much practice as a speaker, it could not be doubted, even if this posthumous work had been his sole production, that he was through life a most sagacious and clear-sighted observer of all the powers and weights that compose the intricate but not unmanageable system, to which we have ventured to allude. At the early age of twenty-six, Mr. Hamilton's strong desire of political distinction had induced him to form manuscript-collections on all the possible subjects of parliamentary investigation, sufficiently large to occupy many volumes; and on the decease of his father, who had designed him for the legal profession, but died leaving such a fortune as enabled his son to act according to his own wishes, he was returned, at the general election in May 1754, one of the members for Petersfield in Hampshire. Before we offer such a sketch of his political history as the preface to this work enables us to give, we shall take the liberty of adverting to the principles and view with which he appears to have assumed the high-sounding title of a representative of the people.

'He considered politicks as a kind of game, of which the stake or prize was the Administration of the country. Hence he thought, that those who conceived that one Party were possessed of greater abilities than their opponents, and were therefore fitter to fill the first offices

offices in the State, might with great propriety adopt such measures (consistent with the Constitution) as should tend to bring their friends into the administration of affairs, or to support them when invested with such power: without weighing in golden scales the particular parliamentary questions which should be brought forward for this purpose: as, on the other hand, they who had formed a higher estimate of the opposite Party, might with equal propriety adopt a similar conduct, and shape various questions for the purpose of shewing the imbecility of those in power, and substituting an abler ministry, or one whom they consider abler, in their room; looking on such occasions rather to the *object* of each motion, than to the question itself. And in support of these positions, which, however short they may be of theoretical perfection, do not perhaps very widely deviate from the actual state of things, he used to observe, that if any one would carefully examine all the questions which have been agitated in Parliament from the time of the Revolution, he would be surprised to find how *few* could be pointed out, in which an honest man might not conscientiously have voted on either side; however by the force of rhetorical aggravation, and the fervour of the times, they may have been represented to be of such importance, that the very existence of the State depended on the result of the deliberation.'

According to such notions, the only serious object to be attained by a member, who delivers an oration in the House of Commons, is victory on the question immediately before him; without the least reference to the right or the wrong, the justice or the injustice, of the particular case. We do not mean here to discuss, with a waste of words, the propriety of such a doctrine; nor to question the extraordinary position, that on almost all occasions honest and enlightened men might fairly vote on either side; nor the still more extraordinary omission to require at least their own conviction as a necessary proof of the conscientiousness of their votes. It is perhaps true that "these positions do not very widely deviate from the actual state of things;" and we shall briefly enumerate some of the methods that must be employed by those who are ambitious of attaining eminence in this profession.

At p. 3. we find the rising orator instructed to 'introduce something flattering to the HOUSE:' but, lest the unadvised compliment should assume the air of a sneer or a sarcasm, he is prudently warned to 'settle the method first.' In the next page, he is directed to consider 'whether the point in debate cannot be put upon a popular ground: every question (it is added) has some parts better than others; separate those in your mind, and suppress one, and *colour the other, as it suits.*' The same page likewise declares it to be proper to 'run a vice into a virtue, and VICE VERSA.—Consider thoroughly your strong

strong points, one by one; and always take into consideration the prevailing prejudices.' P. 11. 'When you cannot resist, then wit, fancy, subtlety, and craft, are of service.'—P. 29. 'The *best* verbal *fallacies* are those which consist not in the ambiguity of a single word, but in the ambiguous syntaxis of many put together.' Ibid. 'State, *as may answer the purpose*, your argument so narrow as to cripple reason, or so wide as to confound it.'—P. 31. 'You may perplex reason by subtlety, or over-rule it by imagination.' Ibid. 'By speaking of events in *the order they did not happen* you may change not only the appearance, but the nature of them.' P. 35. 'If the principal thing in question is strongly against you, consider what is the thing of the greatest importance, and *the most likely to please*, that makes for you. Dwell upon that, and touch the first slightly. *To pass over entirely what is most material, would be too gross.*' P. 37. When 'some one person in a debate asserts something so extravagant, that it is ridiculous and untenable, *you may easily manage* to treat this as the argument of all who have spoken.' Ibid. 'Let Government always state its argument upon some clear principle; *their followers must have something to say, and it is no great matter what.*'—P. 65. '*If you cannot perplex the argument at the outset, contrive to change the question*, by introducing something that is similar to it, in the progress.' P. 45. 'Consider not only whether the argument is for or against your side of the question, but whether *the House of Commons topics* are for or against you.'—Though numerous passages still claim our notice, we will transcribe only one more, which relates rather to the style than the substance of the argument. 'Pre-consider *what you mean should be the finest part of your speech*, and in speaking connect it with what has incidentally fallen in debate, and *when you come to that premeditated and finest part*, hesitate and *appear to boggle*; catch at some expression that shall fall short of your idea, and then *seem at last to hit upon the true thing*. This has always an extraordinary effect, and gives *the air of extempore genius* to what you say.' P. 43.

We have marked the pages from which these several extracts are made, in order that our country-readers may by reference immediately satisfy themselves that *such* instructions have been really given to the aspirants after parliamentary influence, by an accomplished veteran! In truth, when we read over the foregoing sentences to a friend who occasionally visits London, he mistook them for sketches of an ironical treatise on the art of making speeches in parliament, according to the approved practice of modern times, and objected only that the *hint* was of too gross a nature! He became convinced, however,

ever, after very few attendances in the gallery of the House of Commons, that our representation did "not very widely deviate from the actual state of things." He then remarked that it was perfectly natural that the various stratagems and manœuvres above described should suggest themselves to minds heated by opposition, and elevated by the hope of temporary triumph: but he could hardly have believed that any man should coolly and deliberately, even though in jest, devise and detail a regular system of management, so much at variance with the ordinary notions of good faith that prevail in the transactions of mankind.

It would be improper to close this series of scandalous precepts, without adding that, though Mr. Hamilton regarded the British senate in general as a mere amphitheatre for political prize-fighters, 'he acknowleged some questions to be of a vital nature, of such magnitude, and so intimately connected with the safety and welfare of the whole community, that no inducement or friendly disposition to any party ought to have the smallest weight in the decision;' and it will probably excite no great surprize in any of our readers who may form their notion of his intellectual habits from what we have stated, to learn that he always contemplated with the most irreconcileable hostility 'the proposition for a PARLIAMENTARY REFORM, or in other words, for a new-modelling the constitution of Parliament.'

It may seem unaccountable that all the laborious preparation and all the eager impatience for distinction, which marked this youthful candidate, should have terminated in the English House of Commons in producing that *single speech*, from which he received his familiar and well known designation, during the long remainder of his life. The effect, however, of this solitary effort appears to have been wonderful. "There was a young Mr. Hamilton," (said Horace Walpole) "who spoke for the first time, AND WAS AT ONCE PERFECTION. His speech was set, and full of antitheses; but those antitheses were full of argument; indeed his speech was the most full of argument of the whole day, and he broke through the regularity of his own composition, answered other people, and fell into his own track again, with the greatest ease. His figure is advantageous, his voice strong and clear, his manner spirited, and the whole with the ease of an established speaker." He does indeed appear to have offered himself a second time to the notice of the house, 'but probably, (according to his biographer) he shone with less lustre than on the former occasion.' Mr. Fox, however, who at that time (1756) was secretary of state, gave him a seat at the board of trade,

trade, of which Lord Halifax was president; and when that nobleman was appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, Mr. Hamilton accompanied his lordship in the character of his principal secretary.

In the Irish House of Commons, this accomplished statesman is said to have been heard with delight: but the only two of his orations in that assembly which are preserved in this volume do not, we confess, raise to a very high pitch our estimate of his persuasive powers. They are classical and correct compositions, bearing a considerable resemblance to the style of Demosthenes: but they smell more of the lamp than their Athenian models, while the language in which they are written is less susceptible of elaborate refinement.—He occupied the same office under the Earl of Northumberland, the successor of Lord Halifax, but resigned it in consequence of some disgust, during the first session which occurred in that vice-royalty. 'On his return to England, he certainly meditated taking an active part in *the political warfare* of the House of Commons, having made many preparatory collections on the various subjects agitated there, but he never again addressed the chair, though he was *elected* into every new parliament that was summoned from that time to May 1796;' when he ceased to represent the late Earl of Lonsdale, to whom he was indebted for his seat, in consequence of demanding the privilege of acting with more freedom according to the convictions of his own mind, than that zealous supporter of Mr. Pitt's ministry was disposed to allow. The letter, in which this demand was made, is preserved in a note to the preface, and certainly reflects honour on the writer. What circumstances had occurred at that period to inspire Mr. Hamilton with a wish to exercise "the power of thinking for himself," or what induced him to deem it material that he should vote according to his conviction, we should have been glad to learn, but are left to conjecture; yet we think it may without rashness be presumed that his noble patron had no anxiety to *force his conscience* in favour of a PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

Mr. Hamilton died in his sixty-eighth year, on the 16th of July 1796; leaving among those who had the pleasure of his acquaintance, the character of an honourable, a friendly, and a very able man. The force of his style, and his extent of political knowlege, acquired for him the honour of being considered as the long disguised Junius: but the friend who has composed his biographical memoir strongly combats this opinion, though principally by internal evidence; and we are much disposed to acquiesce in the justice of his arguments.

Of

Of the treatise which occupies the larger half of this volume, we have hitherto spoken chiefly as it illustrates the political morality of the present day, and the actual character of the British House of Commons: but we should deem it very unfair to conclude without stating that it abounds with proofs of the author's great acuteness, sagacity, and knowlege of human nature; and that, while too many of its precepts are exclusively and avowedly framed to varnish falsehood and suppress truth, not a small portion of them contains admirable instructions to facilitate the detection of fallacies, the exposure of errors, and the triumph of rectitude over sophistry. It will be sufficient to transcribe a few pointed sentences, which are placed in immediate succession to each other, but without order or connection:

'A fact may result from a concurrence of traditions, though not resting on the authority of a particular one.

'Probability of a thing, (in one view,) against its being true: i. e. men are less likely to examine into it.

'A concurrence of independent and indifferent testimony, having no similarity of motive or design, no common principle to act upon, is the strongest: nothing but notoriety can produce such a concurrence.

'Shew, that by the same liberty of guessing, distinct, opposite, and yet equal, probabilities might be formed.

'Distinguish between a fact and an opinion grounded upon it.

'Reduce every thing to its reason and its principle.

'Do not mistake, nor let others mistake, a strong, peculiar circumstance, for a general principle.

'Obviate not only the objection stated, but turn aside, and see if there is no other.

'Perfection of law consists in its being so framed, that it may govern accidents, not lie at the mercy of them. For a law to owe its utility to a conjuncture, is but little praise.

'Point out the difference between forsaking a thing and forsaking the errors of it.

'You are bound to give not only an affirmative approbation to a law, but negative,—to do nothing contrary to it.

'Men are often right, in denying some thing; but wrong in concluding that what they say, therefore, follows from it.

'Men often conclude right from wrong principles.

'Distinguish between what was our first inducement to believe, and what confirmed us in it finally.'

These are not the tricks of debate, but the rules of just thinking and fair deduction. *Si sic omnia*, the treatise of Cicero *de oratore*, though a more finished, would scarcely have been a more valuable essay.

We see not any necessity for having reprinted the four juvenile odes composed by Mr. Hamilton; they display no poetical genius, and not much felicity of expression.

Dr.

Dr. Johnson's considerations on corn, written in a period of scarcity, (November 1766.) are a defence of the bounty on exportation. The admirable observations, interspersed in his tour to the Hebrides, must dispose us to expect much of original and judicious reflection on political economy from his powerful mind, though not peculiarly versed in its details. On this, however, as on all other occasions, the sturdy moralist fairly faces his subject, walks boldly up to it, and surveys it in every part with a steady and scrutinizing eye. If we cannot here yield an unqualified assent to his positions, we are nevertheless highly pleased with some of his arguments, and particularly with his clear and comprehensive mode of stating the question.—In the posthumous Prayers and Meditations of that great man, a prayer occurs dated November 1765, "on ENGAGING IN POLITICS with Mr. H——n, unquestionably meaning Mr. Hamilton:" but we do not feel ourselves compelled to admit with Boswell that this alludes to a temporary fit of ambition, nor with the present editor that he 'at that time entered into some engagement with Mr. Hamilton occasionally to furnish him with his sentiments on great political topics.' Why may he not have alluded to one of those colloquial trials of strength, in which his mighty mind rejoiced to exert itself?—It is stated that the Doctor had seen the *Parliamentary Logic*, and 'considered it a very curious and masterly performance, but objected to the too great refinement and conciseness of some parts of it, and wished that some of the precepts had been more opened and expanded.' Were there none which he would have regarded it as advisable to expunge? Yet perhaps Johnson, who thought that all advantages might fairly be taken, even for the purpose of obtaining a temporary triumph in common conversation over the friends who acknowleged his superiority, had no right to remonstrate against the employment of similar means for securing the ascendancy of those political associates, to whom a man persuades himself that the country must look for prosperity, and from whom he is at least certain that his own hopes of preferment must be derived.

ART. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1809. Part I. 4to. 14s. 6d. sewed. Nicol & Son.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, *and* NATURAL HISTORY.

THE Croonian Lecture. On the Functions of the Heart and Arteries. By Thomas Young, M.D. For. Sec. R.S.—The object of this paper is to prove that the muscular power of the

arteries has little effect in propelling the blood through them. Dr. Young begins by laying down a position, to the justice of which we are disposed to subscribe, that the mechanical actions which take place in living bodies are regulated by the same general laws as those of inanimate matter. The force of gravity acts on the living exactly in the same manner as on the dead body; light is affected by the eye precisely as by any other substances possessing the same refractive powers; and, generally, 'there is no case in which it can be proved, that animated bodies are exempted from any of the affections to which inanimate bodies are liable, except when the powers of life are capable of instituting a process, calculated to overcome those affections, by others, which are commensurate to them, and which are of a contrary tendency.' On this principle, Dr. Young concludes that, as far as the functions of life depend on the motion of fluids, so far must these functions be reducible to the mechanical laws of moving bodies; and consequently that the question respecting the nature of the circulation, and the degree in which the progressive motion of the blood depends on the muscular or elastic powers of the arteries, must belong to the science of hydraulics, provided that the nature of the powers and the modes of their operation be distinctly known. He arranges his observations under four heads. In the first place, he inquires

'What would be the nature of the circulation of the blood, if the whole of the veins and arteries were invariable in their dimensions, like tubes of glass or of bone; in the second place, in what manner the pulse would be transmitted from the heart through the arteries, if they were merely elastic tubes; and in the third place, what actions we can with propriety attribute to the muscular coats of the arteries themselves. I shall lastly add some observations on the disturbances of these motions, which may be supposed to occur in different kinds of inflammations and of fevers.'

In the propulsion of the blood from the heart, along the arteries into the veins, Dr. Young considers it as subjected to a degree of pressure which is almost entirely expended in overcoming the friction of the vessels. The points, therefore, to which we have to attend, are the amount of the pressure and of the friction; the former he deduces from the experiments of Hales, and the latter from his own experiments on the motion of water through minute tubes, which were some time ago laid before the Royal Society. He then proceeds to the different data which are necessary to establish his conclusions; for which purpose he has recourse to the calculations of Keill for the capacity of the arterial system and the velocity of the blood; and to the observations of Haller for the quantity of blood contained in the whole sanguiferous system.

tem. He then calculates the velocity of the blood in the least arteries, and estimates the effect of its viscidity in increasing the friction against the sides of the vessels.

In commencing his second subject of inquiry, Dr. Young observes that the propagation of the pulse is extremely analogous to the motion of waves on the surface of water, or of sound transmitted through air; and that the same calculations are of course applicable to the three cases. The experiments of Hales are again quoted as the data on which the conclusions are founded respecting the velocity of the pulse; and from this velocity is deduced the degree of the dilatation of the vessels, the former quantity being estimated at 16 feet in a second, and the increase of capacity in the aorta at one-sixteenth of its bulk. Then, assuming that, in the small arteries, the force of the pulse must diminish in the subduplicate ratio of the increase of the sum of their areas, we are told that, in the vessels of the 20th order, the dilatation does not exceed the 160th part of their diameter, which will be no more than the 140th of an inch. On this circumstance the author justly observes, that 'it is not surprizing that Haller should have been unable to discover any dilatation in vessels of these dimensions, even with the assistance of a powerful microscope.'

Having thus endeavoured to ascertain the extent of the dilatation which the arteries experience during the course of the circulation, we proceed in the 3d place to consider the nature of the functions which are to be attributed to their muscular coats. Their dilatation being shewn to be considerably less than it has been generally imagined, Dr. Y. infers that their effect, in propelling the blood along the vessels, is likewise much less than it had been supposed: an opinion grounded not only on the small degree of contraction which these muscular fibres seem to exert, but likewise on the velocity with which the pulse proceeds along the vessels; since it is obvious that, in order to produce any effect, the contraction must advance along the vessel as rapidly as the pulsation. Dr. Young, however, properly remarks that in some cases the circulation must necessarily have been effected merely by the power of the vessels; as in the substances called moles, which have been produced in the uterus without a heart, and in a numerous class of the imperfect animals, which are destitute of this organ. With respect to the first case, he conjectures that the blood may have been carried on in an uniform current, like the sap of vegetables; or that there may have been some peculiarity in the structure of the placenta. The former supposition we can scarcely admit as affording any kind of explanation, since it is merely exchanging one difficulty for another not less obscure. We should incline

to conjecture that, in these instances, some of the large vessels act as substitutes for the heart, and are accordingly furnished with powers which are accommodated to the individual occasion. In the imperfect animals, it is allowed that the aorta is only a heart of a different form. Even the volume now before us contains the account of a fœtus, which had arrived at a considerable state of perfection without a heart, and in which the circulation must have been performed by some accessory power of this description. The real use of the muscular coats of the arteries does not appear to consist in the propulsion of the blood; and Dr. Young imagines that they are chiefly serviceable in accommodating the capacity of the blood-vessels to their contents, which from many causes are frequently varying. With regard to the states of the pulse which are perceptible by the touch, the author observes that they must depend almost entirely on the action of the heart; although the tension of the arteries may cause it to feel a little harder or softer, and the yielding of the longitudinal fibres may render the vessel rather tortuous. When an artery appears to throb, it must be in a state of increased dilatation, and must receive a greater portion of the force of the heart, similarly to the case of an aneurism; and when the pulse is unusually feeble, as in a paralytic limb, the vessels must be in a state of permanent contraction: but it does not appear that the effect, in either of these instances, depends on the action or energy of the artery itself.

Dr. Young devotes the remainder of his paper to the consideration of the causes, general or partial, which produce derangement of the circulation; either as constituting, in the one case, the states of fever, or, in the other, local inflammation. Admitting that the muscular fibres have little influence in producing these conditions, they must be referred to some change in the action of the heart, or in the capacity of the capillaries. Our boundaries will not permit us to follow the author through all his deductions: but we may say of them, as of the paper in general, that they exhibit considerable learning and ingenuity, and certainly deserve the attention of the physiologist. We are not, indeed, prepared to assent to all Dr. Young's positions; and we think that he has relied too implicitly on the experiments of Hales, which, though highly valuable, are not to be received without many allowances. In some cases, we are not sure that we fully comprehend the meaning of the writer; since a degree of obscurity prevails in his style, by which an investigation, that is in itself sufficiently abstruse, is rendered still more difficult.

An Account of some Experiments, performed with a View to ascertain the most advantageous Method of constructing a Voltaic

Apparatus, for the Purposes of Chemical Research. By J. G. Children, Esq. F.R.S.—This paper consists of some experiments made on a Galvanic apparatus of different forms, which serve to illustrate the observation that the same surface of metal produces different effects, according as it is divided into small or large plates. In constructing the apparatus, the author recommends that the disks of copper and zinc should be joined together at one part only, rather than soldered through their whole surface; and that, instead of being cemented into a wooden trough, they should hang loose into cells formed of earthen ware.

The Bakerian Lecture. An Account of some new Analytical Researches on the Nature of certain Bodies, particularly the Alkalies, Phosphorus, Sulphur, Carbonaceous Matter, and the Acids hitherto undecompounded; with some general Observations on Chemical Theory. By Humphrey Davy, Esq., Sec. R.S. F.R.S. Ed., and M.R.I.A.—The Bakerian lecture of this year consists of an account of a great number of most interesting experiments performed by Mr. Davy, in which he has applied his new method of analysis to several substances that had hitherto been regarded as simple bodies. The whole paper occupies above 60 pages; so that it will be in our power to present our readers merely with an abstract of some of the most curious and important of the results.—Professor D. begins by a farther investigation of the effects which he had before noticed from the mixture of potassium and ammoniac. He had stated that, when these bodies are exposed together to a powerful heat, hydrogen gas is disengaged while the potassium becomes oxydated; from which he concluded that ammoniac, like the other alkalies, is an oxyd of some unknown base. The correctness of this opinion having been called in question, Mr. Davy deemed it necessary to repeat the process with every possible precaution; and especially with a reference to some experiments of MM. Gay-Lussac and Thenard, the results of which did not entirely correspond with those which he had formerly obtained. The conclusions that are deducible from the latter experiments of Professor Davy serve to prove the accuracy of the former; and he is moreover successful in pointing out the source of the error into which the French chemists have fallen. It appears that, when potassium and ammoniac are heated together, hydrogen is disengaged, and the potassium is oxydated, and united to a peculiar substance which seems to be the metallic basis of the ammoniac. Although this fact may be considered as clearly established, yet several theoretical difficulties attend it. The substance which is procured from the above process ought to consist of potassium united to oxygen and nitrogen: but, on submitting it to a variety

rietyof operations, for the purpose of removing the nitrogen, it never could be procured in a quantity at all corresponding to the hydrogen which had been evolved. The author proposes a number of ingenious queries on this point, and promises to make it the subject of his future researches.

Sulphur was the next object of experiment. Mr. Davy submitted it, in a state of fusion, to his powerful Galvanic apparatus, and he obtained a gas which was found to be sulphuretted hydrogen: the quantity of gas which the sulphur was capable of affording seemed to be indefinite, while the sulphur itself was converted into a substance of a deep redish brown colour. The same gas was extricated by the action of sulphur on potassium. On the whole, it seemed to be proved that sulphur contains hydrogen; and many circumstances render it probable that oxygen also enters into its composition. The general conclusion respecting it is 'that sulphur, in its common state, is a compound of small quantities of oxygen and hydrogen with a large quantity of a basis that produces the acids of sulphur in combustion, and which, on account of its strong attractions for other bodies, it will probably be very difficult to obtain in its pure form.' Experiments of a similar kind were instituted on phosphorus, and the results were usually analogous; so that in this case it is rendered highly probable that phosphorus is a compound of some unknown base with hydrogen and oxygen, though the quantity of these latter substances may be comparatively small.

We next proceed to the examination of the different carbonaceous bodies, plumbago, charcoal, and diamond. These, the author observes, have been found to produce the same quantity of carbonic acid, and to absorb the same quantity of oxygen during combustion; so that they must consist principally of the same kind of elementary matter. He was still, however, inclined to believe that the great variation, which exists in their physical properties, does not depend merely on the difference of the mechanical arrangement of their particles, but likewise on differences in their intimate chemical nature. This opinion was found to be correct, for he observed considerable variations in the results of his experiments, when he subjected these several bodies, under similar circumstances, to the action of the Galvanic apparatus. Plumbago appeared not to be affected by the most powerful battery, nor was any gas evolved when it was heated in contact with potassium. Charcoal, however, under the same circumstances, extricated a quantity of inflammable gas, and was, by the operation, converted into a substance bearing the external

characters of plumbago. The experiments did not afford any ground for suspecting the presence of oxygen in charcoal. Diamond, on the other hand, by being heated in contact with potassium, gave indications of the existence of a small quantity of oxygen; so that, at present, we are led to suppose that plumbago contains the pure carbonaceous matter in union with iron only, that charcoal contains a little hydrogen, and diamond a little oxygen. Mr. Davy remarks that 'whoever considers the difference between iron and steel, in which there does not exist more than $\frac{1}{200}$ of plumbago, or the difference between the amalgam of ammonium, and mercury, in which the quantity of new matter is not more than $\frac{1}{12000}$, or that between the metals and their sub-oxides, some of which contain less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of oxygen, will not be disposed to question the principle, that minute differences in chemical composition may produce great differences in external and physical characters.'

The three undecomposed acids, the boracic, the fluoric, and the muriatic, were each in succession subjected to Prof. Davy's potent apparatus, with the view of accomplishing their analysis. Of the first of these substances, the decomposition seems to have been completed; and when the acid was submitted to the Galvanic influence, a dark coloured matter attached itself to the negative wire, which was inflammable, and by its union with oxygen became again converted into the boracic acid. It seemed to hold the same relation to its acid which sulphur and phosphorus bear to the sulphuric and phosphoric acids; and we have reason to suppose that it is of a metallic nature. The decomposition of the fluoric acid appears also to have been partially effected, but the results were less decisive than in the former case.

Mr. Davy's curious paper concludes with an account of the attempts which he has made to effect the decomposition of the muriatic acid: but this, notwithstanding his genius and perseverance, he has not yet been able to accomplish. He gives us a very interesting detail of the experiments which he performed with a view to this object, and we acquire from them some important information respecting the constitution of the acid. The great obstacle to its decomposition seems to be the powerful affinity which it exerts for water, so as to retain $\frac{1}{4}$ of its weight of this substance, after it has arrived at what is usually considered as a state of perfect dryness. Many curious operations were instituted for the purpose of ob-

obtaining the acid free from water: but it seemed impossible to accomplish this point, without uniting it to some other substance, which made it equally unfit for the purpose of experiment. The results that were obtained, though not decisive, render it probable that the base of the muriatic acid is a substance of great inflammability; and from analogy we may conjecture that it is of a metallic nature.—The author concludes by observing that

'The facts advanced in this lecture, afford no new arguments in favour of an idea to which I referred in my last communication to the Society, that of hydrogen being a common principle in all inflammable bodies; and except in instances which are still under investigation, and concerning which no precise conclusions can as yet be drawn, the generalization of Lavoisier happily applies to the explanation of all the new phenomena.'

It gives us the greatest satisfaction to learn that Mr. Davy is still ardently pursuing his researches in the field of discovery, into which he has advanced with such unexampled success.

A Letter on a Canal in the Medulla Spinalis of some Quadrupeds. In a letter from Mr. William Sewell *to* Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.—We have here an account of a canal which extends from the *calamus scriptorius*, the apparent termination of one of the ventricles of the brain, along the centre of the spinal marrow. It was found in the horse, the bullock, the sheep, the hog, and the dog; it appears to be an uninterrupted tube during its whole length; and it contains the same kind of fluid that exists in the ventricles of the brain.

A numerical Table of elective Attractions; with Remarks on the Sequences of double Decompositions. By Thomas Young, M.D. &c.—The author here remarks that several efforts have been made to form a series of numbers, which may represent the mutual attractive force of the component parts of different salts, but that the attempts have hitherto all proved imperfect. The convenience which would result from our being in possession of such a table is sufficiently obvious, since by the help of it 'nearly all the phænomena of the mutual actions of a hundred different salts may be correctly represented by a hundred numbers, while, in the usual manner of relating every case as a different experiment, above two thousand separate articles would be required.' Dr. Young informs us that he has succeeded in constructing this series of numbers; which, though they may not be an accurate measure of the forces, yet approximate to accuracy, and may afford a proportional

standard which may shew the relation of the different bodies to each other.

As the basis of his arrangement, Dr. Y. lays down the principle that the attractive force which unites two bodies may be always denoted by a certain constant quantity; whence he infers that a regular gradation must exist in the simple elective attractions; together with an agreement between the simple and the double attractions, and a continued sequence in the order of the double elective attractions. As to the correctness of the tables, we do not undertake to offer any opinion; only remarking that the acknowleged talents of the author would incline us to place confidence in whatever is given under his authority.

Account of the Dissection of a human Fœtus, in which the Circulation of the Blood was carried on without a Heart. By Mr. B. C. Brodie.—This is the case to which we referred in our account of Dr. Young's paper, (p. 355.) of a fœtus of considerable size, in which the heart was entirely wanting. The subject was one of twins who were born dead; and it had all the external parts of the body, although several of them were marked by some deficiencies. On opening the thorax, the following appearances were observed:

'In the thorax there was no heart, thymus gland, or pleura. The trachea was situated immediately behind the sternum. It had its natural appearance, and divided as usual into the two bronchia. The latter terminated in the lungs, which consisted of two rounded bodies, not more than one third of an inch in diameter, having a smooth external surface, and composed internally of a dense cellular substance. The œsophagus had the usual situation, but it terminated in a cul de sac at the lower part of the thorax. The rest of the thorax was filled with a dense cellular substance; and in place of the diaphragm, there was a membranous septum between it and the cavity of the abdomen.'

In the abdomen, the peculiarities were that the stomach had no cardiac opening, the colon had not its appropriate structure, and there were no omentum, liver, nor gall-bladder. The umbilical chord consisted of the vein and only one artery; it entered in the usual part; and the artery was carried down by the side of the urachus to the left groin.

'Here it gave off the external and internal iliac arteries of the left side, and was then continued upwards on the fore-part of the spine forming the aorta. From the aorta arose the common trunk of the right iliac artery, and the branches to the viscera and parietes of the thorax and abdomen. At the upper part of the thorax, it sent off the two subclavian, and afterwards divided into the two carotid arteries, without forming an arch. The veins corresponding to these arteries terminated in the vena cava, which was situated on the an-

terior part of the spine before the aorta, and passed downwards before the right kidney to the right groin. Here it became reflected upwards by the side of the urachus to the navel, and was continued into the larger vessel or vein of the chord.'

It appears, therefore, that this fœtus not only had no heart, but no communication between the trunks of the arteries and veins; so that they were united merely by their extremities, either in the placenta or in the fœtus. The blood must consequently have been propelled along the whole course of the circulation by the action of the vessels, and probably of the arteries; and it follows from this distribution of the sanguiferous system, that the whole of the blood must have passed through the placenta at each circuit. We think that the remark of Mr. Brodie is incorrect, when he says 'that the placenta must have been at once the source and the termination of the circulation:' it can no more be considered as the termination than the capillary vessels in the fœtus; and we conceive that the source of the circulation must have been derived from the arteries. We regret that nothing is said about their structure; which, it may be conjectured, would have exhibited an unusual degree of muscularity, because we generally find that, when any deviation from the ordinary structure of the body prevails, some other organ is furnished with such additional powers as may enable it to become a proper substitute for the defective parts. It is a circumstance worthy of notice that, in all those cases in which no heart has been formed, the liver also has been wanting.

On the Origin and Formation of Roots. In a Letter from T. A. Knight, *Esq. F.R.S.* to Sir Joseph Banks.—In one of his former papers on vegetable physiology, Mr. Knight endeavoured to prove that the buds of trees always spring from the alburnum, and he informs us that to this opinion he still finds reason to adhere. 'The object of the present communication is to shew, that the roots of trees are always generated by the vessels which pass from the cotyledons of the seed, and from the leaves, through the leaf-stalks and the bark, and that they never, under any circumstances, spring immediately from the alburnum.' It has always been supposed that the radicle of the seed is the rudiment of the future root of the plant: but Mr. K. proposes to shew that this opinion is erroneous. He had before pointed out a circumstance which appeared to be essential to the formation of a proper root, viz. that it is always lengthened by the addition of successive new parts to its apex, whereas the shoots increase by the extension of parts previously organized. Now, in the case of the radicle, it appears that

that it grows by extension, and is therefore not analogous to a proper root. This part, Mr. Knight imagines, comes into existence during the germination of the seed, and springs from the point of the radicle; but at this period the alburnum is not yet formed; while, on the other hand, the cortical vessels are full of sap, and are therefore well fitted for producing the true root. It is also found that the leaf-stalks of many plants possess the power of generating roots, though they never contain any portion of alburnum. If the shoots of a vine be divided, so as entirely to prevent the passage of the sap, roots are readily formed from it, and they always proceed from the upper lip of the wound only. It seems clear that they are generated by the sap which descends through the cortical vessels.

Mr. K. then notices the fact that the same part of a plant may be made to form either buds or roots; not that they are convertible into each other, but that the alburnum is better fitted for carrying its sap upwards, and thus, under favourable circumstances, for producing buds, while the cortical vessels permit their fluids to move in an opposite direction. It is not easy to decide whether the fluids, which move in these opposite directions, be similar: but Mr. Knight suspects that they are; and he seems to conceive that the mere circumstance of the fluid moving in one case upwards, and in the other downwards, will account for its producing either buds or roots.—He informs us that he has been investigating the cause which directs the roots of plants in search of their proper nutriment, and proposes to make it the subject of a future communication: it is a very interesting inquiry; and we are gratified by hearing that it has engaged the attention of so able an experimentalist.

On the Nature of the intervertebral Substance in Fish and Quadrupeds. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.—During an examination of the *squalus maximus*, Mr. Home found that, when the intervertebral subtance was cut, a fluid rushed out of it with great force. The cavities which contain it are each capable of holding about three pints; their sides are ligamentous and elastic; and when they are emptied of their contents, the vertebræ are brought considerably nearer to each other. The magnitude of the parts enabled Mr. Home to examine the peculiar mechanism of the joints to great advantage, and he afterward extended his researches to the vertebræ of other animals. The mechanism itself appears to be extremely beautiful, and Mr. Home's account of it is ingenious;

The

'The fluid contained in the cavity being incompressible, preserves a proper interval between the vertebræ to allow of the play of the lateral elastic ligaments, and forms a ball round which the concave surfaces of the vertebræ are moved, and readily adapts itself to every change which takes place in the form of the cavity.

'The elasticity of the ligaments, by its constant action, renders the joint always firm, independent of any other support, and keeps the ends of the vertebræ opposed to each other, so that the whole spine is preserved in a straight line, unless it is acted on by muscles or some other power. When a muscular force is applied to one side of the spine, it stretches the elastic ligament on the opposite side of the joint, and as soon as that force ceases to act, the joint returns to the former state. This is one of the most beautiful instances in nature of elasticity being employed as a substitute for muscular action.

'The extent of the motion in each particular joint is undoubtedly small but this is compensated by their number, and the elasticity of the vertebræ themselves.'

Most kinds of fish seem to possess a structure similar to that which is here described, though the shape of the cavity varies in different species. It is, as the author observes, probably contrived for producing those quick lateral motions of the spine which take place in swimming. The intervertebral substance of the whale is considerably different:

'The external portion is very firm and compact, is ranged in concentric circles with transverse fibres uniting the layers together, it becomes softer towards the middle, and in the centre there is a pliant soft substance without elasticity, but admitting of extension more like a jelly than an organized body, corresponding in its use to the incompressible fluid in the fish.'

Several animals were then examined; and the hog and the rabbit were found to approach to the structure of fish in general: but in some other animals, and in the human subject, the form of the intervertebral substance was more similar to that of the whale. The author draws a practical conclusion from these observations, respecting the treatment of the curvature of the spine in young persons, especially females; and he observes that it must be extremely prejudical to stretch the intervertebral ligaments, since in that case the intervertebral substance must be unable to support the bones in their proper position.—To the paper is appended a chemical analysis of the fluid by Mr. Brande, from which he infers that it consists of mucus.

MECHANICS.

An Account of a Method of dividing Astronomical and other Instruments, by ocular Inspection: in which the usual Tools for graduating are not employed; the whole Operation being so contrived, that no Error can occur but what is chargeable to Vision, when assisted

assisted by the best optical Means of viewing and measuring minute Quantities. By Edward Troughton.—By speculative men, this paper will be regarded as very curious and interesting, and to the artist it is highly important. We have read it with great interest; and we regret that the want of plates prevents us from giving so full an account of it as it deserves: but still we hope that we shall be able to render intelligible to our readers the nature of its most important contents.—The merit of Mr. Troughton's method will be better appreciated, if we previously attend to the former modes of dividing large astronomical instruments. Bird, who was esteemed the most accurate divider of his time, invented a method of dividing a quadrant by continually bisecting a part of it. A quadrant of 90° contains 90×60 minutes, or 90×12, or 1080 portions of 5 minutes each: now $2^{10} \times 5' = 1024 \times 5'$; therefore an arc equal to $1024 \times 5'$ ($=85^\circ\ 20'$) is the arc nearest to 90°, which can be repeatedly bisected, and of which the arc determined by the tenth bisection is 5′. The means of obtaining this point, corresponding to 85° 20′, were thus effected:

'The extent of the beam-compasses, with which Bird traced the arc upon the limb of the instrument to be divided, being set off upon that arc, gave the points 0° and 60°; which, being bisected, gave 30° more to complete the total arc. A second order of bisections gave points at 15° distance from each other; but that which denoted 75° was most useful. Now, from the known length of the radius, as measured upon the scale, the length of the chord of 10° 20′ was computed taken off from the scale, and protracted from 75° forwards; and the chord of 4° 40′, being ascertained in the same manner, was set off from 90° backwards, meeting the chord of 10° 20′ in the continually bisectional arc of 85° 20′. This point being found, the work was carried on by bisections, and the chords, as they became small enough, were set off beyond this point to supply the remainder of the quadrantal arc. My brother, whom I mentioned before, from mere want of a scale of equal parts upon which he could rely, contrived the means of dividing bisectionally without one. His method I will briefly state as follows, in the manner which it would apply to dividing a mural quadrant. The arcs of 60° and 30° give the total arc as before; and let the last arc of 30° be bisected, also the last arc of 15°, and again the last arc of 7° 30′: the two marks next 90° will now be 82° 30′ and 86° 15′, consequently the point sought lies between them. Bisections will serve us no longer; but if we divide this space equally into three parts, the most forward of the two intermediate marks will give us 85°, and if we divide the portion of the arc between this mark and 86° 15′ also into three, the most backward of the two marks will denote 85° 30′. Lastly, if we divide any one of these last spaces into five, and set off one of these fifth parts backwards from 85° 30′, we shall have the desired point at 1024 divisions upon the arc from 0°. All the rest of the divisions which have been made in this operation, which I have called marks because

because they should be made as faint as possible, must be erased; for my brother would not suffer a mark to remain upon the arc to interfere with his future bisections.'

Ramsden's method is applicable only to small instruments; for which, however, Mr. Troughton thinks, it is admirably calculated.

'The only method (says Mr. T.) of dividing large instruments now practised in London, that I know of, besides my own, has not yet, I believe, been made public. It consists in dividing by hand with beam compasses and spring dividers, in the usual way; with the addition of examining the work by microscopes, and correcting it, as it proceeds, by pressing forwards or backwards by hand, with a fine conical point, those dots which appear erroneous; and thus adjusting them to their proper places. The method admits of considerable accuracy, provided the operator has a steady hand and good eye; but his work will ever be irregular and inelegant. He must have a circular line passing through the middle of his dots, to enable him to make and keep them at an equal distance from the centre. The bisectional arcs, also, which cut them across, deform them much; and, what is worse, the dots which require correction (about two thirds perhaps of the whole) will become larger than the rest, and unequally so in proportion to the number of attempts which have been found necessary to adjust them. In the course of which operation, some of them grow insufferably too large, and it becomes necessary to reduce them to an equality with their neighbours. This is done with the burnisher, and causes a hollow in the surface, which has a very disagreeable appearance.'

Mr. T. subsequently adds; 'I will dismiss this method of dividing, with observing that it is tedious in the extreme; and did I not know the contrary beyond a doubt, I should have supposed it to have surpassed the utmost limit of human patience.'

We now proceed to describe Mr. Troughton's method. Suppose the radius of a large circle to be 40 inches, and that of a small circle or cylinder to be 4 inches; then, if this latter rolled equally along the circumference of the former, it would perform the circuit after having made ten rotations. Suppose next the circumference of the cylinder or *roller* to be divided into ten equal parts: then such divisions might be transferred to the circumference of the greater circle, which would thus be divided into 100 parts. If the roller in ten rotations exactly made the circuit, if its divisions were precisely equal, and if it revolved along the circumference in every part alike, then would the circumference of the circle be thus exactly divided into a hundred equal parts. This, however, is not in reality the author's method of equally dividing the circle. He finds the means, indeed, of obtaining the first condition: the second, if acquired, would be rendered useless by the impracticability of attaining

attaining the third; and the ultimate equal division of the circle is, in fact, entirely independent of equality in the primary division. If the roller were a perfect cylinder, it would be practically extremely difficult to turn it with such nicety that it should exactly measure the circle: but this difficulty is dexterously obviated by forming the roller slightly conical: so that an easy adjustment makes a section of it (that which is to revolve on the convex border of the circle) exactly measure the circle.

A circumstance relating to the circuit of the roller is particularly worthy of notice. In the different parts of its journey round the circle, the roller measures the latter very differently; that is, a division of it transferred to the circle in one point would be unequal to the same division transferred at any other point, 60° distant, for instance; notwithstanding which, the roller, having reached the point on the circle whence it set out, performs a second, third, &c. course of revolutions, without any sensible deviations from its former track. This is, however, satisfactorily explained by Mr. T. The brass in one part may be more porous than in another, and, with regard to the travelling of the roller, may be related as a ploughed field and a gravel walk are. Again, the convex edge of the circle is indented in the first circuit of the roller; and in succeeding circuits it follows its first track.

In our illustration, we made the diameters of the circle and the roller as ten to one: but in Mr. Troughton's construction they are as sixteen to one. The roller is divided into sixteen parts; and consequently the circle will be separated by the above mentioned method of transferring the divisions into 16×16 or 256 parts: but the operation, advanced as far as this division, is incomplete for two reasons: first, the divisions are unequal; and, secondly, if equal, their value would be 1° 24′ 22″,5 each, whereas it is desirable to obtain divisions of five minutes each. The 256 divisions are not in fact made equal, but their respective inequalities or errors are ascertained and estimated by the following most ingenious process, which is a main part of the author's method:

'The apparatus (that by which the 256 dots are made) must now be taken off, and the circle mounted in the same manner, that it will be in the Observatory. The two microscopes, which have divided heads, must also be firmly fixed to the support of the instrument, on opposite sides, and their wires brought to bisect the first dot, and the one which should be 180° distant. Now, the microscopes remaining fixed, turn the circle half round, or until the first microscope coincides with the opposite dot; and, if the other microscope be exactly at the other dot, it is obvious that these dots are 180° apart, or in the true diameter of the circle; and

and if they disagree, it is obvious that half the quantity by which they disagree, as measured by the divisions of the micrometer head, is the error of the opposite division; for the quantity measured is that by which the greater portion of the circle exceeds the less. It is convenient to note these errors + or —, as the dots are found too forward or too backward, according to the numbering of the degrees; and for the purpose of distinguishing the + and — errors, the heads, as mentioned before, are numbered backwards and forwards to fifty. One of the microscopes remaining as before, remove the other to a position at right angles; and, considering for the present both the former dots to be true, examine the others by them; *i. e.* as before, try by the micrometer how many divisions of the head the greater half of the semi-circle exceeds the less, and note half the quantity + or —, as before, and do the same for the other semi-circle. One of the micrometers must now be set at an angle of 45° with the other, and the half differences of the two parts of each of the four quadrants registered with their respective signs. When the circle is a vertical one, as in the present instance, it is much the best to proceed so far in the examination with it in that position, for fear of any general bending or spring of the figure; but, for the examination of smaller arcs than 45°, it will be perfectly safe, and more convenient, to have it horizontal; because the dividing apparatus will then carry the micrometers, several perforations being made in the plate B for the limb to be seen through at proper intervals. The micrometers must now be placed at a distance of 22° 30′, and the half differences of the parts of all the arcs of 45° measured and noted as before; thus descending by bisections to 11° 15′, 5° 37′ 30″, and 2° 48′ 45″. Half this last quantity is too small to allow the micrometers to be brought near enough; but it will have the desired effect, if they are placed at that quantity and its half, *i. e.* 4° 13′ 7″,5; in which case the examination, instead of being made at the next, will take place at the next division but one, to that which is the subject of trial. During the whole of the time that the examination is made, all the dots, except the one under examination, are for the present supposed to be in their true places; and the only thing in this most important part of the business, from first to last, is to ascertain with the utmost care, in divisions of the micrometer head, how much one of the parts of the interval under examination exceeds the other, and carefully to tabulate the half of their difference.'

Having, by this process of examination, ascertained the errors of the respective dots, the author arranges these errors in a table, and, from what he calls the apparent errors, deduces the real. If A be an arc, and it be required to ascertain the error of the intermediate dot, [which ought, if every thing were exactly performed, to be in the middle,] suppose the lesser arc to be $\frac{A}{2} - x$, and the greater $\frac{A}{2} + x$, then $\frac{A}{2} + x - \left(\frac{A}{2} - x\right) = 2x$. Now the micrometer shews this quantity

$2x$.

$2x$. Suppose it $= d$, then $x = \frac{d}{2}$, $\frac{d}{2}$ is the apparent error, and the arc is divided by the dot under examination into $\frac{A}{2} + \frac{d}{2}$, and $\frac{A}{2} - \frac{d}{2}$. This $\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)$ however is only an apparent error, since the two dots which are the extremities of the arc A are erroneously placed. Suppose the arc A to be within the two true points; and let the intervals between the true points and the erroneous extremities be respectively a and b; then the true arc is $A + a + b$; and the true half arc, which determines the real position of the middle point, is $\frac{A}{2} + \frac{a}{2} + \frac{b}{2}$: but the distance of the dot under examination, from the true upper extremity of the arc, is $\frac{A}{2} - \frac{d}{2} + a$; and hence the real error

$$= \frac{A}{2} + \frac{a}{2} + \frac{b}{2} - \left(\frac{A}{2} - \frac{d}{2} + a\right)$$

$$= \frac{b}{2} - \frac{a}{2} + \frac{d}{2}$$

or $$= -\left(\frac{a}{2} - \frac{b}{2} - \frac{d}{2}\right)$$

which is in fact Mr. Troughton's rule, since, according to his directions, a is to be put $+ a$, $b - b$, and $d - d$. $\left(\frac{d}{2}\right.$ answers to his c.) He observes;

'The rule is this; let a be the real error of the preceding dot, and b that of the following one, and c the apparent error, taken from the table of half differences, of the dot under investigation; then is $\frac{a+b}{2} + c =$ its real error. But, as this simple expression may not be so generally understood by workmen as I wish, it may be necessary to say the same thing less concisely. If the real errors of the preceding and following dots are both $+$, or both $-$, take half their sum and prefix thereto the common sign; but, if one of them is $+$, and the other $-$, take half their difference, prefixing the sign of the greater quantity: again, if the apparent error of the dot under investigation has the same sign of the quantity found above, give to their sum the common sign, for the real error; but if their signs are contrary, give to their difference the sign of the greater for the real error. I add a few examples.

Example 1.

For the first point of the second quadrant.

Real error of the first point of the first quadrant	0,0
Real error of the first point of the third quadrant	$-6,9$

Half

Half sum or half difference	— 3,4
Apparent error of the dot under trial	+ 12,2
Real error	+ 8,8

Example 2.

For the point 45° of the second quadrant.	
Real error of the first point of the quadrant	+ 8,8
Real error of the last point of the quadrant	— 6,9
Half difference	+ 0,9
Apparent error of the dot under trial	— 8,9
Real error	— 8,0

Example 3.

Point 88°,6, or last point, of the third quadrant.	
Real error of the point 84°,4 of the third quadrant	— 21,0
Real error of the point 2°,8 of the fourth quadrant	— 2,9
Half sum	— 11,9
Apparent error of the dot under trial	— 4,0
Real error	—15,9

By these means, all the real errors are computed and arranged in a table; and Mr. T. makes use of the table of errors in the process of dividing the circle.

If the roller were accurately marked off into arcs of 1° 20′ each, one of these divisions would correspond to 5′ on the circle, since $5' \times 16 = 1^\circ\ 20'$: but, instead of dividing the roller, and of transferring the divisions to the circle, the author employs a small sector attached to the upper part of the roller. This sector is divided into 16 spaces of 1° 20′ each, and subdivided at each end into 8 parts of 10′ each: so that, if 16 divisions on the sector are transferred to the circle, the arc will be 1° 20′: but the 256th division of the circle, or the mean interval between two dots, is $1^\circ\ 24'\ 22'',5 = (1^\circ\ 20') + 4'\ 22'',5$. Now $4'\ 22'',5 = \frac{7}{8}\,5'$; and hence, if the apparatus be carried forwards $\frac{7}{8}$ of a division, the division on the sector ought to agree with the true place of the dot: but the true place of the dot is not marked: nevertheless, the table of real errors answers every end which the true dotted place could serve; because, if by such table the error should be found —4,8 divisions of the micrometer head, the cross wires of the microscope, by which the work is examined, must be set back to —4,8 divisions. Therefore, the table of real errors serves the purposes of verification: so that, if the action of the roller should in any part not be true, the error thus introduced cannot be extended to any distant interval.

We have been obliged to be very brief in the mention of the sector; partly because plates are wanting to an adequate explanation of it; and in some degree, we must confess, owing to our not completely understanding the mode of adjusting and fixing the sector to the other portion of the apparatus.

In a subsequent part of his paper, Mr. T. describes, according to his principle, the method of dividing a circle on its broad edge perpendicular to the plane of the circle; and also the method of dividing a circle.

In speaking of the œconomy of time, as dependent on his method, he observes:

'It is somewhat difficult to give a comparative estimate of the time which the different methods of dividing require. I know that thirteen days of eight hours each, are well employed in dividing such a circle by my method; about fifty-two days would be consumed in doing the same thing by Bird's method; and I think I cannot err much when I state the method by adjustment, supposing every dot to be tried, and that two thirds of them want adjusting, to require about one hundred and fifty of such days.

'The economy of time (setting aside the decided means of accuracy) which the above estimate of its application offers to view, will, I think, be considered of no little moment. By the rising artist who may aspire at excellence, it will at least, and I should hope, with gratitude, be felt in the abbreviation of his labours. To me, indeed, the means of effecting this became indispensible; and it has not been without a sufficient sense of its necessity, that I have been urged to the progressive improvement and completion of these means, as now described. It is but little that a man can perform with his own hands alone; nor is it on all occasions, even in frames of firmer texture than my own, that he can decisively command their adequate, unerring, use. And I must confess that I never could reconcile it to what I hold as due to myself, as well as to a solicitous regard for the most accurate cultivation of the science of astronomy, to commit to others an operation requiring such various and delicate attentions, as the division of my instruments.'

The present paper must place Mr. Troughton very high in the rank of distinguished English artists; and he will deserve his elevation not for the skill of his hand only, (in which, however, he is surpassed by no modern,) but for contrivance of head. It has been properly rewarded by Sir Godfrey Copley's Gold Medal being assigned to its author, at the late anniversary meeting of the Royal Society.

Part II. of the Transactions for this year has just been issued.

ART.

ART. IV. *The Nature and Guilt of Schism considered, with a particular Reference to the Principles of the Reformation*, in eight Sermons, preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1807, at the Lecture founded by the Rev. John Bampton, M.A., Canon of Salisbury. By Thomas Le Mesurier, M.A., Rector of Newton Longville, Bucks, and late Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 443. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

SCHISM is a most aukward subject for a protestant ecclesiastic to discuss. Who is to decide? If the answer be, *The Church from which the separation is made*, then the Papist will take "the 'vantage ground" in his condemnation of all the Reformed communions;—or, if the right of deciding be acceded to the *Parties separating*, then it will be impossible to convict the sectary of guilt. The case is nearly the same with *Heresy*. When in the last century a controversy was maintained on the latter topic between Drs. Stebbing and Foster, the wits of the day remarked that Stebbing was a heretic to God and Foster to the church. This dispute, and also the celebrated Bangorian controversy, ended where it began; and little inducement can be presented for renewing the agitation of questions, in which the parties debating are not agreed on a common principle.

We suspect that most of Mr. Le Mesurier's readers will impeach his prudence in reviving with zeal the arguments against Schismatics, and will think that in many places he has laid himself open to a severity of animadversion, which he can scarcely have failed to foresee. On his own ground, he has certainly displayed considerable ability, and has spread his matter out into eight long sermons with the ingenuity of a professed orator: but the reasoning is not benefited by this diffusion; and, in spite of all his caution and adroitness, the very defence which he makes for the Established Church of this country, in separating from the church of Rome, must be fatal to his own argument. It is in vain to say that our forefathers at the Reformation had very substantial reasons (which no protestant doubts) for withdrawing from the church of Rome, but that modern Separatists are not justified in their secession from the church as now by law established. The Separatist will ask on what principle did the Reform proceed,—on that of submitting blindly to Authority, or on that of an appeal to Reason and Scripture? He will farther ask whether the right of private judgment was not recognized by the Church of England in her rejection of that dominion over conscience, which was claimed and exercised by the Court of Rome; and whether individuals of the present day have not the same right as the original reformers to dissent from

that which they disapprove, and to reform, as far as they themselves are concerned, the reformed religion? Mr. Le M., in a tone of dictatorial authority, may endeavour to silence the dissenter by reminding him that 'he is *bound* to adhere to the *sound* part of Christ's church established in this country;' that 'this is his *proper* church;' that 'he is born within her bosom;' that it is dangerous for men to be indulged with that complete liberty for which some persons would stipulate; and that 'a total freedom from church-government and external ceremonies is not a state particularly favourable to the increase of religion:'—but all these assumptions will be as strenuously resisted as they are magisterially urged; and if, in addition to these remonstrances, the preacher, with all gravity of face, proceeds to represent the sectary as 'committing a grievous and heinous sin for which he must be *deeply* accountable at the day of judgment,' we suspect that the poor sectary will be more amused than alarmed by this *brutum fulmen*, or *would-be* anathema. Indeed, we should not be surprized if he should be so indecorous as to burst out into a downright laugh, when Mr. Le Mesurier (intending, no doubt, to produce a contrary effect,) quotes one of the Fathers to prove that Schism was a reason for the power of working miracles having ceased in the church. Of as little avail is the lecturer's view of the state of the Jewish Theocracy; for he surely would not compare a human with a divine institution, or even claim for a modern Bishop that power which belonged to the Apostles in consequence of miraculous gifts.

It would afford us infinite pleasure to perceive more harmony and less acrimonious division prevailing among professing christians: but we are at the same time thoroughly persuaded that this preacher has not adopted the true mode of effecting that object. Indeed, we fear that it will be retarded rather than promoted by violent and presumptuous declamations against Schism. The sectary can have no objection to argument, but, like the spirits in Macbeth, "he will not be commanded." He cannot object to submit the matters at issue between him and the advocate for the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England to a fair examination, in the very same way that Mr. Le M. brings the doctrines and discipline of the Church of Rome under review in order to vindicate the Protestant's rejection of such a mass of corruptions: but he will not be told that his religious belief must be decided by his geographical position; and that the church of the country to which he belongs is, because he was born in it, 'his *proper* church.' Such logic will not pass current among Protestants in the nineteenth century. Whether

ther the clergyman of our church argues with the Romanist or the Methodist, with the Arian or the Socinian, we should advise him to enter into the merits of each case, and fairly to discuss the acknowleged grounds of difference; because, if by this mode of amicable controversy he can win the dissentient back to the national fold, he most effectually cures the Schism in question; and if he cannot, it will be completely nugatory to charge him with a guilt of which he is not conscious. Since the passing of a toleration-act, the agitation of the question respecting the guilt of Schism is in a great measure set aside. Can the legislature be supposed to *tolerate guilt?* The established church has its rights and privileges secured to it by Parliament; while Parliament at the same time allows every man to think in religious matters for himself, and to worship God in that way which is most agreeable to his own conscience.

Mr. Le M. is aware that he is treading on tender ground; and no advocate at the bar, who had received a special retainer, could be more adroit in making a strong case for his client: yet still we cannot congratulate him on his success. We have adverted to several points of his argument, and do not consider it as necessary to follow him regularly through each discourse: but we shall transcribe his own summary, given towards the conclusion of Sermon IV.:

'We do most firmly believe that Christ will be with his church to the end of the world; that, under whatever cloud he may suffer the light at any time to be obscured, whether through the malice of outward enemies or the corruptions of Christians themselves, it will always, in due season, break forth, it will, sooner or later, enlighten the world far and near. In particular, we acknowledge it to be an effect of that gracious Providence which thus watches over the faithful, that we have been enabled to free ourselves from the shackles which had been imposed upon us by the church of Rome, and from the corruptions and abominations with which we had been contaminated in the course of our communion with her bishops.

'We also believe, that there has always been a church of Christ existing and visible upon earth, though not always easy to be distinguished. Nay, we allow that church to have existed even under the papacy; for, as it has been truly said, a man infected with a leprosy is still a man; our church, therefore, was always subsisting, even in the dark ages, though diseased. God gave us grace at length to shake off the diseases with which we had thus been infected; we rid ourselves at the reformation of our many heresies, the most pestilent of which, because it was the source of all the others, was this supremacy of the popes. Thus the English church is, and has continued essentially the same, from the first conversion of the Britons to Christianity down to the present hour. She has, indeed, suffered

from within and without, she has stood many an assault, and been greatly impaired at times, both in strength and beauty; but, blessed be God, she survives, and is, according to my firm and conscientious belief, the truest model of an apostolical church now existing, *as near to perfection*, in her theory at least, as, perhaps, any church made up of fallible men can hope to be, while we continue in this world.

'I have now, I trust, shewn with sufficient clearness, though briefly, that the claims of the popes have no foundation, either in Scripture or in the practice of antiquity. I have shewn also, upon how different a footing stands the question between us and the papists from what it does between us and the protestant dissenters. For, according to what I have thus laid before you, as well from the practice of all antiquity, as from Scripture, and I may add, (for, indeed, all the works of God harmonize together,) from the nature of the thing, that we, as forming no part of the national church of Rome, could not be bound to pay any obedience to that see, nor to govern ourselves by her decrees. We could only be connected with her in that common bond of charity and fellowship which should join together all the churches of Christ; and which will always subsist, where it is not broken by any fundamental errors in doctrine, or by extravagant and inadmissible claims of superiority or of independence on the one part or on the other.

'But, as to the body of English dissenters, they, as *born within her bosom, are or should be*, according to the same usage of antiquity, language of Scripture, and nature of the thing, *members of our church; and as such, are bound to conform to her discipline.* This, indeed, neither they nor any other individuals are bound to do to every extent; for, as I have before admitted, they may shew, if such were the case, that the terms of communion which she requires are contrary to God's word, and that they cannot continue in conformity to her without endangering their eternal salvation. Certainly, a case of that kind, properly made out, would be *a sufficient excuse and ground of separation.* But, this is what has never been made out; no, nor ever pretended by the greater part of the dissenters.'

He farther adds, in the VIIIth sermon:

'You will remember that the great points which I have laboured to inculcate, have been, that schism is a sin; and that the sin consists in separating without cause from the church to which a man belongs; that is, from the rule of discipline established and observed in the place *where a man is born*, or *where he is permanently resident.* That with that church so established a man is bound to abide in communion, unless he can shew clearly and satisfactorily that the conditions of communion which she requires, are such as he cannot subscribe without serious hazard to his salvation.'

It is little short of argumentative *felo de se* for an author to assert that an individual is bound to conform, and then to grant that a sufficient excuse and ground for separation *may* occur. Apparently, however, to save himself from so palpable a contradiction, the author adds that the case which he

supposes has never been made out: but unfortunately in the prosecution of the lectures he makes out the case himself, and establishes it in favour of the Unitarians; who, he acknowleges, '*do right* in abstaining from the communion of the established church.' 'It is better (he says) that they who differ so widely should be kept asunder; that they only who agree in the same doctrine should worship God in the same place.' Now if they do right in abstaining from communion, they cannot be guilty of the *sin* of schism. They cannot in this point be at once guilty and not guilty; and if they are justified in their dissent by so striking a dissonance of religious doctrine, it is not correct to say, as is here incidentally remarked, that 'perhaps the aim of every sectary has been the acquisition of wealth and of power.' Mr. Le Mesurier has stated the case of the Unitarians very fairly, and given it as much weight as they could have imparted to it by a representation of their own:

'You will recollect that one of our objections to the church of Rome is founded upon her invocation of the saints, which we justly regard as a direct breach of the first commandment, as giving to men that honour which belongs only to God, which indeed he has in express words reserved to himself. But this is in fact what is imputed to us by those members of this sect who go the full length of the doctrine, who speak, as most boldly, so most consistently. By them the worship which we pay to Christ is expressly called idolatrous and blasphemous. And, if their tenets be well founded, if they rightly affirm that our Saviour is not God, that there is no warrant in Scripture for the doctrine of the trinity, we must admit that it is not without reason that all this is said, nay, that we are really guilty of the charge which they bring against us.'

The preacher, however, would have it supposed that the majority of modern nonconformists are not Unitarians, and consequently not in a predicament which justifies separation from the Established Church: but as to this matter they will judge for themselves. With some, a particular article of faith, and with others the form of church government and worship, constitutes the objection.

With the Methodists and Evangelical Preachers, Mr. Le Mesurier is much dissatisfied, especially as they in a great degree erect their plea for separation on the alleged insufficiency of the established ministers. In some respects, he condescends to argue the point: but we cannot suppose that he will conciliate either the Methodistic people or their teachers, by telling the latter that they are "the blind leading the blind."

After we had perused eight very long discourses, in which the zeal of the lecturer was displayed, as we thought, for the conversion of Schismatics, his conclusion appeared rather flat when he expressed his fears that they would not listen to him, and summed up the whole with the stale exhortation, 'Let every man reform himself.' Certainly, he has convinced us that, in his mode of warfare against sectaries, he is not likely to gather laurels; and that it would have been better for him to have adopted Gamaliel's advice,—*Let them alone.*

ART. V. *An Attempt to prove the Truth of Christianity from the Wisdom displayed in its original Establishment, and from the History of false and corrupted Systems of Religion:* in a Series of Discourses preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1808, at the Lecture founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, M.A. &c. By John Penrose, M.A. of Corpus Christi College. 8vo. pp. 375. 9s. Boards. Murray. 1808.

FROM the all-pure, all-attractive, and all-excelling example of Christ, an argument in favour of the truth of his religion may be deduced which is at once satisfactory to believers and embarrassing to infidels. It avoids points of difficult discussion, such as prophecy and miracles, and appeals directly to a matter of fact which is indisputable in itself, and conclusive in behalf of the religion of which it is the prominent feature. The question simply is, what was Christ, and how does he appear when contrasted with all those who in any age or nation have undertaken to give a system of religious truth to the world, or have presided in sacred things? This point is easily determined, and on its decision the christian advocate is prepared to rest the controversy.

Mr. Penrose has taken this ground; and he maintains himself on it with a fairness which must, at least, conciliate the esteem even of an adversary. It appears, by the dedication, that he is not unwilling to have these Sermons regarded as a sort of supplement to those *celebrated* Bampton Lectures which were preached in 1784, containing a view of the contrast between Christianity and Mohammedanism; yet he endeavours to avoid the imputation of following on a beaten track, by adding, 'I have taken a line of argument which I do not recollect to have been pursued elsewhere.' He flatters himself with thinking that it has been 'usefully conducted,' and that he 'has done something for the question of which he has treated.' By such language, which we do not

not impute to the score of vanity, but to a much nobler motive, we were induced to open this volume with a pleasing anticipation; and the clearness and fairness of the reasoning, aided by a rich display of illustrative learning, oblige us not merely to say that our expectations have been fulfilled, but that they have been surpassed.

Of late we have been rather diffuse in our notice of sermons; and though the present volume is in itself intitled to a review at some length, we find the calls on us so multifarious, that we must request Mr. Penrose to excuse us if we assign to him less space than he rightly deserves.

As a necessary preliminary to this important inquiry, the preacher makes the proper distinction between wisdom and cunning, between integrity and craft, and then proceeds with much ability to try the merits of Christianity by this criterion; comparing the character of its author with that of all those with whom a religious system ever originated, and clearly demonstrating that in his conduct no traces either of enthusiasm or of fraud are to be discovered by the nicest scrutiny. Christ not only appears to vast advantage when contrasted with Zoroaster and Confucius, with the most illustrious personages of Greece and Rome, with the false Messiahs of the Jews, and with Mohammed, but even when compared with Moses and the prophets, with the most eminent of his own disciples during his public ministry, and with all who in subsequent ages have endeavoured to preach and proselyte in his name. At what a distance do all other characters stand from that which he displayed; which is of a nature so truly sublime and perfect, when weighed in the scale of wisdom and virtue, that it requires a stretch of faith, not very much in consonance with Infidelity, to suppose that such a character was the fiction of men whose views and conduct were so very unlike those of the Son of God. The lecturer takes an ample range in the illustration of this point; and though we cannot exhibit his argument at full length, we trust that we shall so far do it justice, that we shall induce the theological reader not to rest contented with the abstract which we can afford him. It is here observed that

'There is, in truth, no charge either of vice or error that can be alleged against corrupted Christians, which does not appear doubly glaring, when contrasted with that unstained purity of Christ himself, which is, by the same contrast, the more conspicuously represented to our view.'—'Christ uniformly commanded his disciples to be holy as their Father which is in heaven is holy. He never authorised them to compromise truth: never instructed them to palliate falsehood. He pretended not to a severity of demeanour. He came eating and drinking: he conversed freely with publicans and sinners.

The

The preservation of a conduct perfectly pure and unexceptionable must, to a man thus mixing in the detail of ordinary life, be far more difficult than perseverance even in the extreme of ascetic mortification. But the liberty of Jesus was without spot, as his piety was beyond comparison: his wisdom was unsullied by insincerity; and his zeal unmixed with violence.'—'His character, though full of strength and meaning, is in nothing extravagant, in nothing disproportioned. He was pious, but not enthusiastic; temperate, but not austere; meek, but not abject; and heroic, but not rash.'—'His character is the exact union of the contemplative and active virtues.'

Now what a striking distinction appears between the real conduct of Jesus Christ in the preaching of his gospel, and that of the teacher of a false religion in the same circumstances? Indeed, as we have already hinted, it not only rises pre-eminent over that of the most celebrated founders of other religions, but over the conduct all those who have subsequently ruled in his church.

We are so much pleased with the comparison instituted between Christ and Moses, and with the judicious remarks on Christianity which it introduces, that we cannot restrain ourselves from copying the passage:

'Eminent as is the character of the Jewish lawgiver, both for public virtue and personal disinterestedness, the character of Christ is too superior to require or admit comparison. The zeal of Moses was national; the benevolence of Christ is universal: Moses was the deliverer of Israel, but Christ the saviour of mankind. The presumptions likewise, by which the founders of both religions may be vindicated from any sinister imputation, are far more numerous and striking in the history of Christ, than in that of Moses. The Jewish worship was completely united with the civil constitution of the Jews. Could Moses and Aaron be supposed impostors, their conduct, the one assuming the temporal, and the other the spiritual supremacy in the state, might seem naturally to proceed from the common principles of ambition. Christ, to speak with precision, is no legislator. Real Christianity may consist with any form of civil polity whatever. It interferes not, nor did it interfere at its first origin, either to weaken or confirm the authority of existing magistracies, unless by the indirect operation of its moral and religious doctrines. As soon as a certain establishment became necessary to its propagation, an establishment was formed for the sake of the religion: it is manifest that the religion was not devised with reference to the establishment.'

As a true protestant, and friend to the civil and religious liberties of mankind, Mr. Penrose attacks with energy the corruptions, artifices, and tyranny of the Papal system, and exposes the accommodating policy of the Jesuits in Japan, China, Hindostan, and Paraguay. He has perhaps pursued this matter to a greater length than was necessary at the present time: but his

his discussions are amusing; and his opinion of our missionary-projects in the East is the result of a learned and profound examination of the subject. The history of the Jesuits, moreover, is an instructive lesson.

A more correct view of the nature of the Gospel, as it respects political institutions, was never more neatly expressed than in the following sentence: 'True Christianity, though it interferes not, by any direct method, with civil ordinances and subjection, is, in its influence, favourable to liberty.' Not less excellent are the Lecturer's strictures on the unhallowed methods adopted by that power which has been most adverse to christian liberty, viz. the court of Rome*, and his remarks on the dawning light which preceded the Reformation:

'Where the principles of liberty are understood, the throne of the patriot monarch is the only throne which is secure. But when reason has been subjected to the tyranny of long prescription, and religious bigotry, no sudden exertion is competent to restore its freedom. The twilight must first glimmer, and the day dawn through ages of gradual illumination, ere the perfect light of truth can rise to dispel the terrors of darkness. Bacon studied, and Wickliffe taught, without any immediate result corresponding to the merit of their exertions. Other ages were to elapse before the practicability of deliverance could exist, before that flame of reformation could be kindled at the pile of Latimer and Ridley, of which, as they predicted, so we confide that it shall never be extinguished.

'With the corruptions of the Romish church it must be unnecessary to compare, expressly, the unviolated religion of Jesus Christ. The contrast is too obvious to require a minute exemplification. No insult to the spirit of true Christianity can easily be imagined, of which, in the manifold abuses of the papacy, some striking instance is not to be discovered. Christ gave himself a ransom for mankind. Pardons have been lavished by the Roman pontiff on all who would arm to glut his vengeance †; and sold to all who would contribute to satiate his rapacity ‡. Christ submitted himself to share the sorrows, and

* Though Mr. P. vehemently reprobates the Papal tyranny, he wisely considers the progress of knowlege as having operated on that system, and concludes that, as its bigotry has been diminished, its persecutions have probably ceased.

'† Hist. des Albigeois, p. 95.'

'‡ "A notable instance of this hath appeared lately, when in the year 1709, the privateers of Bristol took the galleon, in which they found five hundred bales of these bulls, and sixteen reams were in a bale; so that they reckoned the whole came to 3,840,000. These bulls are imposed on the people, and sold, the lowest at three ryals, a little more than 2od. but to some at fifty pieces of eight, about 11l. of our money; and this to be valued, according to the ability of the purchaser, once in two years. All are obliged to buy them against Lent.

and participate in the infirmities of mankind; that he might comfort our weakness, and show by the most lively example that he was sensible to all our wants. When the order of the inquisition was instituted by Innocent III. he selected such persons to fill its offices as were most remarkable for the austerities of personal discipline. He concluded that the fanatic excesses of mortification, to which they had habituated themselves, would deaden their sensibility for others*: and they, in truth, who inflicted on their own flesh unnatural and superstitious penances, were, probably, of all men, most hardened against humanity; least likely to be mollified by tears or disturbed by pity in authorizing the use of torture, or regulating its severity.

'Without attempting, therefore, to enlarge on this uncontested distinction between the moral purity of genuine Christianity and of Papal corruptions, it is to be observed that their difference in real wisdom is not less remarkable; since it is probably to this difference that the imperfect progress of our religion in the world is chiefly to be referred.'

By the philosophic mind and scholar-like attainments displayed in these discourses, Mr. Penrose has fully shewn himself worthy of the office to which he was appointed; and the University of Oxford will probably regard this volume as not inferior to that to which it humbly aims at being supplemental. When, however, we advert to the force of the argument which this writer has managed, we could wish that he would not remain satisfied with the praise of the learned, but that he would prepare an abstract of these lectures, in a more popular and unostentatious form, for common use.

Lent. Besides the account given of this in the Cruizing Voyage, I have a particular attestation of it by Captain Dampier. He was not concerned in casting up the number of them; but he says that there was such a vast quantity of them, that they careened their ship with them." Burnet, iii. Introd. p. 20. cited Jortin's Life of Erasmus, i. 108. 8vo.'

'* Hist. de l'Inquisition, p. 119. 8vo. Col. "Ecoutons le Docteur Gonzale de Illescas, dans la premiere partie de son Histoire Pontificale et Catholique, pag. 117. "Si alors (dans les premiers siècles de l'Eglise) on ne bruloit pas les hérétiques opiniâtres, c'est qu'outre qu'ils étoient fort puissans, le pape n'avoit pas les forces ni l'appui des princes séculiers. Présentement, la foi étant établie et reçue, et le souverain pontife ayant acquis beaucoup de pouvoir, il est juste que l'on procede contre eux par les plus cruels supplices."' La Croze, Hist. du Christianisme d'Ethiopie, pp. 304, 305.'

ART.

ART. VI. *Observations on the Influence of Soil and Climate upon Wool*; from which is deduced, a certain and easy Method of improving the Quality of English clothing Woods, and preserving the Health of Sheep; with Hints for the Management of Sheep after Shearing; an Inquiry into the Structure, Growth, and Formation of Wool and Hair; and Remarks on the Means by which the Spanish Breed of Sheep may be made to preserve the best Qualities of its Fleece unchanged by different Climates. By Robert Bakewell. With occasional Notes and Remarks, by the Right Honourable Lord Somerville. 8vo. pp. 157. 6s. 6d. Boards. Harding. 1808.

AGAINST Encyclopedias and Dictionaries of Commerce, this author prefers a serious complaint respecting the accounts which they offer of the article *wool*; and which, he says, are only calculated to excite the smile of the merchant or the manufacturer. If he alludes to Dictionaries of a modern date, he should have specified the particular errors and omissions; or if to works of long standing, he ought to have recollected that, till very lately, the subjects of wool and of wool-bearing animals have been very superficially known. We take it for granted that the various dissertations on sheep and their fleeces, which have appeared here and on the continent, will not be overlooked by future Encyclopedists; and that the hints of the wool-grower and wool-stapler, which have recently issued from the press, will claim due attention from these scientific Bees.

Mr. Bakewell stands a fair chance of being quoted with Luccock, Parry, Anderson, Schultz, Fink, Lasteyrie, &c.; and we trust that the remarks which he has offered on the causes of the deterioration of wool, and on the means of promoting and preserving fineness of staple, will gain due consideration from the owners of flocks. So far he seems to have acted ingenuously with the public, that, notwithstanding the confidence with which he offers his own opinion, he has subjoined the notes of Lord Somerville, which not always abet it, but are calculated to make us hesitate respecting its general adoption. We are informed by Mr. B. that 'a little attention to the wool from various districts, soon discovered that the soils most favourable to the production of the soft quality were, first, the argillaceous; next, the siliceous; and it was well known that calcareous soils, whether limestone or chalk, produce wools of a contrary quality, remarkable for their harshness to the touch.' Lord S., however, in his note subjoined to this passage, though he admits the effect assigned to chalk, does not subscribe to the observation as applicable to limestone.

limestone, but maintains that the doctrine militates against the whole of our practice in the western counties.

Again, Mr. B. asserts that the quality of the soil imparts an indelible colour to the wool; that

'In parts of Gloucestershire, the fleece acquires a deep orange colour from the soil; in Hertfordshire and Warwickshire, and in every district having a red coloured soil, the wool is inclined to a brownish red. The fens of Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire communicate a dark blueish tint to the wool. Wools on chalk soils are distinguished by their whiteness; and in every district the action of the soil is evinced by communicating its own colour to the fleece, either by insinuating its particles into the fibre, or chemically uniting with its surface.'

Lord Somerville's note, however, will prevent the reader from receiving the above assertions without qualification. His Lordship adds:

'It *is painful** to offer in illustration of this subject, one's own practice; but least an effect which is sometimes produced, should be deemed certain and invariable, it behoves me to state, that I have repeated proofs of the reverse, in the instance of my own Merino ram hogs, which were bred on a red loamy sand and a limestone subsoil; the wool being shorn after the yolk was well up, scoured of the purest white, which colour, being manufactured into white kerseymere, after frequent washing, it preserves to this day. But the author's observation may be, and probably is, correct with respect to fleeces more coarse and open in the pile.—S.'

The chemical action of lime and of calcareous earths on wool is thus explained:

'It will invariably be found, whenever lime or calcareous earths come in contact with wool, they deprive it of its soft quality by their action on the surface of the fibre. A demonstrative proof of this effect is offered, in the process of separating the wool from the skins by the fell-monger. The pelts are steeped some days in lime and water; the softest wools, when thus exposed to the action of lime, lose their distinguishing excellence, and acquire all the harshness of wools grown on limestone soils. The hard wools have this quality increased by the same operation; hence the value of skin-wool is considerably less than that of fleece wool equally fine. This fact alone is decisive, and proves, that the hardness of wools in limestone districts is occasioned by the external action of the soil, and not by the food of sheep. Nor will it be difficult to ascertain, in what manner the lime acts upon the wool: it absorbs the natural grease or yolk of the fleece, and forms with it an imperfect soap, which is miscible with water, and easily washed away by the rain. The wool, thus deprived of the unctuous cover intended to keep it soft and pliable,

* Why should it be painful?

is exposed to the air and rain, and the staple is laid bare to the caustic operation of calcareous earth.'

As the means of preserving the soft quality of wool in every situation, and of counteracting the effects of soil and climate, the author recommends the use of an ointment, composed of butter, oil, or lard, and tar, or bees-wax, as a covering to the fleece; and he states the benefits which have resulted from this unctuous application in the northern countries, where the wool-growers grease their sheep, both to preserve them from wet and cold and to improve the wool. After having specified various instances to this purpose, Mr. B. lays it down as a maxim, 'that an improved method of greasing fine-wooled sheep should be adopted in every part of the kingdom.' This greasing he recommends to be applied immediately after shearing; rubbing the back and sides of the sheep with the unguent.

On climate and pasture, Mr. B. places more stress than many of his cotemporaries; and here also he is partly contradicted by his noble annotator, especially with regard to the Merino breed, whose fleeces were not deteriorated by being depastured in very rich marsh land; yet so reasonable does his proposition appear, that we shall insert it:

'I will venture to assert, *that in proportion to the regularity of the temperature in which sheep are kept, and to the regular supply of nourishment they receive, will the hair or fibre of the wool preserve a regular, even degree of fineness.*'

The remainder of the paragraph must not be omitted:

'From an observation of the wools of Africa, I am convinced that the arid soil destroys their softness, and the parching heats produce great irregularity in the fineness of the hair. In Portugal, where the same attention is not given to sheep as in Spain, and they are more exposed to the summer heats, the wool is less regularly fine, and more intermixed with coarse silvery hairs. A cool moderate temperature is more favourable to the production of fine wool than excessive heat; and were the sheep of Spain, like those of England, unprotected against the effects of climate, I should have no hesitation in saying, that the situation of that country would be in some respects worse than that of our own island, and more unfriendly to the growth of a fine even staple. But to the other qualities, the soundness and softness of the fibre, our frequent rains are very prejudicial, unless the sheep be sheltered and defended from their effects. This only proves, that greater attention is required to external causes acting upon the fleece than has hitherto been thought necessary in England. With due precautions to counteract these causes when prejudicial, I have no doubt fine wool will continue to be grown in Britain, equal in every good quality to the Spanish or Saxony fleeces. The prejudices of the manufacturers on this subject, must yield to repeated proofs; and

and the time will come, when they will reflect with gratitude on the exertions of those distinguished characters in the present reign, who have, by a judicious attention to the breed of sheep, done so much to improve the wool of their native country.'

We shall not detail the author's observations on the formation of wool, hair, fur, feathers, and silk; nor his rationale of felting; nor his explanation of the causes of jointed staple, cotted fleeces, &c.; for which we must refer to the volume.

On such an important article as wool, every hint from an experienced man is valuable; and perhaps our northern farmers will listen to Mr. Bakewell's expostulations on the subject of providing some shelter for sheep. His representation is an eloquent argument to enforce the necessity of this accommodation:

'Both interest and humanity call upon the farmers to provide some shelter for their flocks during the severity of winter. I trust the efforts which Lord Somerville has for some time made to awaken the Northern farmers from their supineness, will not be in vain. It is not only in the Northern countries, but in every part of our Island, that more attention is required to provide occasional shelter against the inclemencies of the climate, both for sheep and all other animals which are exposed in the fields. In proportion as they are made comfortable, will be their tendency to improve; and it is not only our interest, but every humane man must feel it a duty, to provide for the comfort of those animals which are entrusted to his care. In the Northern districts such attention seems absolutely necessary. The farmers in the Midland and Southern counties can scarcely form an idea of the tremendous wintery storms which sweep over the Cheviot hills, and the wild fells of Cumberland and Westmoreland, or the still bleaker mountains of Scotland. At such times the Heavens are darkened with descending snows, and sleet driven by furious gusts of wind, which compel the sheep to seek protection in hollows and glens near the bottom of the mountain. Suddenly an impetuous blast uplifts whole fields of snow from its shelving sides above, and driving aloft in tumultuous whirl, precipitates the contents on the miserable flock, which are in a moment buried deep under the surface. In vain may the shepherd try to trace them over a driving expanse of snow; were he to attempt it, he might share the fate of his flock. But all effort of this kind is fruitless; for the summits, the sides, and the very base of the mountain, "are involved in tempests and a night of clouds," which bury every object in impenetrable gloom. Sometimes these immense volumes of rolling vapour dispart, and open for a few moments to disclose the horrors of the scene. The shepherd, mindful of his own safety, returns home, and day after day, awaits the hour when he may wander out safely in search of his flock; whilst they in the mean time, sickening with hunger and perishing with cold, are at last relieved by death from their long protracted misery. Thus have perished during the last winter many thousand sheep in Northumberland, and other northern parts of our Island.

Island. The owner, whilst he wanders over these wild and melancholy wastes, and observes his thinly-scattered flocks, may perhaps murmur at the order of Nature: let him rather accuse his own supineness, and learn at length to profit by the lessons of a dearly-purchased experience.'

Mr. B.'s tract contains many matters that are interesting to the wool-grower and manufacturer, which we have been forced to pass over: but we shall not omit Lord Somerville's review of it, which will be a proper finale to this article:

'This Treatise has brevity and much ingenuity to recommend it; regardless of profit, or indeed any remuneration for his labour, the Author has no other object than to call the public attention to this neglected, but most important branch of rural economy. How nearly it is connected with the success of our finest woollen manufactures, and how much the national revenue may be affected thereby, it is needless here to dwell on.'

ART. VII. *Account of the Life and Writings of James Bruce, of Kinnaird, Esq. F.R.S.* Author of Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, in the Years 1768, 1769, 1770, 1771, 1772, and 1773. By Alexander Murray, F.A.S.E. and Secretary for Foreign Correspondence. 4to. pp. 504. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co. 1808.

NINETEEN years ago, the public mind was much attracted towards *Bruce*, *Abyssinia*, and *the Nile*: but, at the present moment, it is more engrossed by *Wardle*, *Clarke*, and *Wright*, or even by *Catalani*, *Kemble*, and *O. P.* — Though these ephemeral objects may soon vanish, it would be in vain, perhaps, to attempt to revive that attention which was once bestowed on the enterprizing traveller: yet the nature of his researches will ever make the authenticity of his statements a matter of interest; and any farther illustrations of the subject, as well as biographical details of Mr. Bruce himself, must still have some claims to the notice and some hold on the curiosity of all literary men. Much of this feeling will be gratified by the volume before us; the contents of which, contrary to the general case, are by no means adequately expressed in its title. 'The account of the life and writings of Mr. Bruce' does not form above a fourth part of the volume; and the remaining three fourths, under the title of Appendix, consist of a variety of letters and other documents, from the pen of the traveller and from those of his friends. These papers serve the double purpose of adding to the stock of information contained in the original publication, and of

conferring a character of authenticity on many passages in it, which, from Mr. Bruce's habits of inaccuracy, had become subject to suspicion; and had they been printed at the same time with the travels, they would have greatly tended to suppress the attacks of criticism, by removing the doubts which an unsupported narrative, frequently at variance with itself, was calculated to excite.

We may consider the present volume, then, in three parts. I. The account of the life and writings of Mr. Bruce. II. Correspondence; consisting of letters to and from him during his consulship at Algiers, as well as during the course of his travels and after his return. III. Descriptions of Abyssinia, extracts from his travelling journal, and lists of the writings from which his travels were composed.—In the second and third of these divisions, only the task of selection and arrangement has devolved on Mr. Murray: but, in the first, he appears in the character of a writer, and has afforded one of the neatest specimens of biography which has for some time come under our notice. We shall make a brief abstract of its information.

Mr. Bruce was born in Scotland in 1730, and sent to the neighbourhood of London for education. Of his progress when at Harrow, under Dr. Cox, very flattering accounts were addressed to his father. One friend thus expresses himself in a letter:

"What I wrote to you about James is all true, with this difference only, that you may say, as the Queen of Sheba said of Solomon, the one half has not been told you, for I never saw so fine a lad of his years in my life; but lest I should have been deceived in my own opinion of him, I waited purposely on Dr. Cox, to get information from him how he was profiting, whose answer to me on that occasion was this: "When you write to Mr. Bruce's father about his son, you cannot say too much, for he is as promising a young man as ever I had under my care, and, for his years, I never saw his fellow."

Another friend writes two years afterward:—"I am extremely glad I can give you so good a character of him, for he is a mighty good youth, a very good scholar, and extremely good tempered; has good solid sense, and a good understanding; I make no doubt he will prove a very pretty fellow."

After having finished his education, he intended to follow the profession of the law in Scotland, but renounced it, and came to London in 1753, in expectation of going out as a writer to India. An attachment, however, which he formed in the metropolis, to a Miss Allan, the daughter of a wine-merchant, induced him to prefer the comforts of domestic life

at home to the prospect of Asiatic wealth. His conjugal happiness was of short duration; Mrs. Bruce having betrayed symptoms of hereditary consumption in the first year of their marriage, which made it necessary to try the milder climate of France: but her journey was destined to terminate at Paris, where she sank under this fatal malady. Mr. B. left Paris immediately after her interment, frantic with grief, and travelled during a tempestuous night towards Boulogne, which he reached on the following day. Fatigue, abstinence, and sorrow threw him into a fever, which detained him at that place nearly a week; and he lost, after this event, that eager attachment to business which had been encouraged by causes that no longer existed. He now applied to the improvement of his skill in drawing, and to the study of foreign languages, with the view of travelling on the continent. In 1757 he visited Portugal, Spain, France, and the Netherlands, and in the next year succeeded to the family estate by the death of his father. The income arising from this property was soon afterward increased by the establishment of the celebrated Carron iron works in its vicinity.

In 1761, the war with Spain having taken place, he proposed to the ministry the plan of an attempt on Ferrol, which excited their serious attention, but was found incompatible with the dispatch that was requisite for the relief of Portugal. Mr. Bruce was therefore about to retire to his estate, but was prevented by Lord Halifax, who represented to him that the way to rise in the new reign was by enterprize and discovery, and "that His Majesty's love of the arts was a sure and effectual introduction to patronage." The place of Consul at Algiers being vacant, his Lordship offered it to Mr. Bruce, and recommended the acceptance of it as affording him an opportunity of visiting Africa under the protection of a public character; promising him leave to appoint a vice-consul for the dispatch of business in his occasional absence. Mr. Bruce acceded to these proposals, left England in June 1762, and, having obtained from the liberality of M. de Choiseul, the French minister, a free passage through that country, arrived in Italy, where he passed the remainder of the year and a part of the next in examining the precious monuments of antiquity.

The period of Mr. B.'s consulship at Algiers was marked by a large proportion of those difficulties and dangers which are inseparable from intercourse with rapacious barbarians: but it afforded him occasions of displaying his characteristic courage, and prepared him for the connection which he was destined to form with nations still less advanced in civilization.

He also availed himself of opportunities of travelling into various parts of Africa, as well towards the interior as along the Mediterranean coast. In 1767, he passed over into Asia, visited Balbec and Palmyra; and returned to Aleppo in reduced health; where he was greatly indebted for his recovery to the affectionate solicitude of M. Belville, a French merchant, with whom he continued in correspondence for many years afterward. He here improved himself in medical knowlege, the character of physician being the best introduction among the rude nations whose territory he proposed to explore. Leaving Aleppo in the spring of 1768, and travelling through Egypt, he embarked from Cairo to proceed up the Nile, towards the end of that year: but having gone by water as far as Syene, he returned to Kenne and availed himself of the caravan to Cosseir on the Red Sea, whence he coasted the Arabian shores to Jedda, the port at which the merchandise of India is distributed to Mecca and the adjoining countries. After having remained here some time, he sailed along the coast to the Straits at the extremity of the Red Sea, and returned in September 1769 to Masuah, a small island situated on a part of the African shore of the Red Sea, contiguous to Abyssinia. Passing through a variety of toils and dangers, he reached Gondar, the Abyssinian capital, where he found himself among the most savage nation which he had yet visited. The small-pox had lately been introduced into Abyssinia, and was making frightful havoc among the inhabitants; which enabled Mr. Bruce, by applying the European mode of treatment, to acquire great credit both at court and among the people. His biographer here observes:

'The various incidents which established Mr. Bruce's reputation for courage, abilities, and generosity, after his introduction to the king, though very interesting, are too minute to be enumerated in this place. He gained nearly as much by the discreet and liberal manner in which he treated his enemies, as by the respectful attention which he paid to his friends. He easily excited the admiration of an ignorant court by exhibiting effects of fire-arms well known in Europe, but wonderful to such as have little knowledge of them. Though equally qualified for the field and court, he owed much of the favour bestowed on him by the Abyssinians to his medical character. In order, however, to prevent his being reckoned an indigent physician, he often refused the money which was offered him for his services, and, by asserting that he practised medicine only for his own satisfaction, and through a love of mankind, preserved the dignity of his character as a soldier and a man of rank.

'By his situation at court, he had an opportunity of observing the gross debauchery in which the higher classes of people in Abyssinia indulge. All Gondar was one scene of festivity at the marriage of

of Powussen, governor of Begemder, with a grand-daughter of the Râs and the old queen. To celebrate this alliance, which was made for the sake of ensuring Powussen's fidelity to the government, Michael, Ozoro Esther, and the bride's mother, distributed multitudes of cattle among the populace and army. Drink was given in proportion; and the dissipation which prevailed every where, for some weeks, can neither be described nor imagined. The married women ate raw beef, drank hydromel and spirits, and smoked like the men. Mr. Bruce, though dejected, in ill health, and shocked at the grossness of such society, was often obliged to be present.'

Mr. Bruce resided in Abyssinia above two years. He accomplished his visit to the Sources of the Nile before the end of the first year, and was afterward desirous of setting out on his return with all possible expedition, but was detained by the importunity of the court, and by the sanguinary contests which desolated the kingdom. Another year elapsed in the prosecution of his journey northward through Nubia and the immense deserts which separate that country from Egypt, and it was not till March 1773 that he reached Alexandria. In the next year he returned to Scotland; where, having again become a married man, the care of his property and domestic affairs seemed totally to abstract him from literary pursuits, until the death of his wife, in 1785, drove him to seek consolation in the revival of former transactions, and in the description of the countries which had been the scene of his travels. He prepared an account of them with rapidity, and gave it to the public, in 5 vols. 4to., in 1790.—His death took place four years afterward, in consequence of a fall down his own stairs.

Mr. Murray follows up his sketch of Mr. Bruce's life, by discussing the merit of his literary productions. Soon after the appearance of the Travels, we entered into a very full examination of them; (Monthly Review, N. S. Vols. II. and III.;) and while we gave Mr. Bruce ample credit for intrepidity, address, and enterprize, we felt it incumbent on us to expose without reserve those errors and contradictions which affected the credibility of the narrative. When Mr. Murray treads the same ground, the partiality of an admirer is sufficiently conspicuous: but his mind is too enlightened to conceal facts, which, even when explained with all the respect and delicacy of friendship, convey in substance an acknowlegement of the justice of our censures. In the course of our strictures, we endeavoured to expose the impropriety of the traveller's exultation in regarding the sources of the Abay as the sources of the Nile, and in representing himself as the first European who had visited these fountains. The follow-

ing paragraphs express Mr. Murray's opinion on this as well as on some other parts of the book :

'The springs of the Abay, which he visited, were generally reputed to be the chief source of the Egyptian river when he left Europe. The Abay itself is unquestionably one of the principal branches of the Nile, and seems to be considered, by the natives of Habbesh and Atbara, as the higher part of the great river. But the claim of the Abay to this last honour is contested, as well as the discovery of its sources by Mr. Bruce. Admitting both to be well founded, this discovery, whatever ideas of imaginary glory it may have excited, or whatever influence these may have had in promoting his journey, seems, when considered by itself, to be comparatively of very little importance.

'The defects of this work, which bear a small proportion to its merits, arise from circumstances common to most performances of the kind, a love of theory and system, a desire to please the reader, and, in several instances, from a degree of inattention and carelessness, not easily avoided im composing a long narrative of minute transactions.

'In the course of his voyages on the Red Sea, Mr. Bruce had observed many singular phænomena, which, along with the information given by ancient writers, led his mind to reflect on the first establishment of the Indian trade, and the navigation of the Arabian gulf, in the most remote ages. Imagining that the birth-place of ancient civilization lay in Ethiopia, that is, in the country between Azab, or Adel, and Syene, he entered into a theoretical history of the establishment of trade and commerce, and the invention of the arts and sciences, particularly of architecture, astronomy, and writing, by the Shepherds of Azab and Meroe, and by their kindred, the Cushites, who afterwards peopled Egypt. He has executed this undertaking with much learning and ingenuity, particularly that part of it which relates to the triennial voyages of the Jews and Phœnicians to Tarshish. But it is easy to see, that his theory, however applicable in a few instances, is liable to powerful objections. He seems to take it for granted, that the Shepherds and Cushites, names of indefinite signification, occupied the whole extent of country already mentioned, without dissention or difference, in the remotest times; and that their posterity inhabits Abyssinia and Atbara at this day. To simplify ancient history in this manner, by leaving out of the account many of the scattered facts which are preserved concerning these nations in their ancient, as well as what is known of them in their modern state, is a dangerous experiment, apt to deceive both the author and his readers His account of the building of Axum, Meroe, and Thebes, and of the origin of writing, is therefore unsatisfactory; and, when he descends to the history of the modern Abyssinians, who have no authentic annals till a late period, he gives too much credit to their national fables, which deduce the line of their kings from Solomon and the Queen of Sheba, and pretend to derive their government, laws, and institutions, from the Jews. The prevalence of the Jewish religion in Habbesh, before the æra of Christianity, has also inclined him to suppose, that the Falasha, the Agows, and the people

people of Amhara and Gafat, came originally from Palestine, though most of their languages have not the slightest affinity to the Hebrew.

'The third and fourth books of the Travels, containing the history of Abyssinia, from the year 1298, to the time of his arrival in the country, along with the preceding one, already mentioned, on the Indian trade, form a long episode, which has been considered by many readers as uninteresting, and a clog on the narrative.'—

'Though his journals were in general copious, he too often omitted to consult them, trusting to the extent and accuracy of his recollection. At the distance of fifteen years, a part of so many incidents must have been effaced from the most tenacious memory. Before he composed his narrative, his mind had begun to suffer from the indolence natural to his time of life. He was not sensible, that, by relying with too great security on his memory, he was in danger of confounding dates, actions, and circumstances, which might have been easily rectified by his papers.'

One of the principal objects of our animadversion, in reviewing Mr. Bruce's travels, was his mistaken interpretation of Greek authors; and we would invite any of our readers, to whom our strictures may have appeared severe, to compare them with those of a continental writer, whose impartiality cannot be called in question. The learned Professor Hartmann's character of Mr. Bruce is thus given:

"Abessiniam salutasse Brucium, vix dubium; retulit multas res memoriâ dignas, sed saepissimè mendacia lectoribus pro veritate obtrudit; sibimetipsi haud raro contradicit, doctrinam jactatur quâ tamen caruisse multis locis comprobat. Opere ejus nemo ergo utatur, nisi antea adhibita sic criticis circumspectissima." *Edrisii Africa, Hartmanni, p.* xxxv.'

Mr. Murray concludes with a portrait of Mr. Bruce, which is too interesting to be withholden from our readers, although liable, in some degree, to the objection of partiality:

'Mr. Bruce's stature was six feet four inches; his person was large and well-proportioned; and his strength correspondent to his size and stature. In his youth he possessed much activity; but, in the latter part of his life, he became corpulent; though, when he chose to exert himself, the effects of time were not perceptible. The colour of his hair was a kind of dark red; his complexion was sanguine; and the features of his face elegantly formed. The general tone of his voice was loud and strong, but his articulation was sometimes careless and indistinct. His walk was stately; his air noble and commanding. He was attentive to his dress, and was particularly successful in wearing that of the nations through which he passed in an easy and graceful manner, to which he was indebted in part for his good reception, especially in Abyssinia.

'The leading qualities of his mind were courage, magnanimity, and prudence. He was endowed with a large portion of that elevated

spirit, without which no enterprise of importance is conceived or executed. He was ambitious to be known as the performer of honourable and useful undertakings, and was equally intrepid and dexterous in effecting his designs.

'His personal accomplishments fitted him, in a superior manner, for the undertakings in which he engaged. His constitution was robust; he had inured himself to every kind of fatigue and exercise. His long residence among the Barbary Arabs, the best horsemen in the world, had enabled him to excel in the management of the horse, and in the exercise of the lance and javelin. His skill in the use of fire-arms was uncommonly great. He knew also how to display these accomplishments to the best advantage among barbarians, and seldom failed to excite their applause and astonishment.

'In qualifications of a different description, he equalled, if not surpassed, the generality of travellers. His memory was excellent, and his understanding vigorous and well cultivated. He found no difficulty in acquiring languages of any kind. He understood French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, the two first of which he spoke and wrote with facility. Besides Greek and Latin, which he read well, though not critically, he knew the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Syriac; and, in the latter part of his life, compared several portions of the Scriptures in those related dialects. He read and spoke with ease, Arabic, Ethiopic, and Amharic.

'Mr. Bruce's temper, as he candidly confesses, was irritable and passionate; but his heart was warm; his affections ardent; and his moral feelings extremely acute. His friendships were sincere, and, in general, permanent, though sometimes interrupted by suspicion.'—

'The most defective part of his character arose from his constitutional temper, which disposed him to be suspicious, and hasty in taking offence. His enmities therefore were sometimes capricious, though, in general, well founded. His love of ancestry, and practice of telling his own exploits, though magnified into vices by the weakest of his enemies, scarcely deserve notice as imperfections, though they certainly were prominent features, in his character.'

We have already expressed a favourable opinion of the manner in which Mr. Murray has performed his biographical labours. Extent of information and care in composition are evident characteristics of his work, his style is good, and his selection of circumstances is judicious. The interest of the narrative, however, is not equally great throughout. As long as Mr. Bruce's history is confined to scenes with which the reader is in some degree acquainted, such as Europe, Syria, or Egypt, the attention remains excited: but when we are transported to the unknown ground of Abyssinia, and suddenly introduced to a multitude of unheard-of names, an abridged statement, such as that of Mr. Murray, cannot afford entertainment, —except to those who have previously read the original work; and he who has not perused Bruce's Travels beforehand will

find himself in a labyrinth, similar to that which entangles us on the first reading of Ossian's poems. The biographer should here have confined his pen to a notice of a few of the leading characters and events, and, after some general remarks, have referred to the Travels at length.

In regard to Mr. Murray's style, which we have already praised, we must add that we have remarked some inaccuracies, slight indeed in themselves, but such as we should not have expected in a classical writer. In one place, (page 14.) we are told, 'his *hopes* were by no means *certain*;' in another, (p.16.) an individual is mentioned as '*concerting* a plan;' and in a third, (p.92.) he says that Mr. Bruce observed two or three fountains, *some* 'of which were inclosed.' Our principal objection, however, is that the diction is sometimes too magnificent for the familiar nature of the subject. Speaking of Harrow school, Mr. Murray says (page 8.), 'This seminary was then *conducted by the abilities of Dr. Cox.*' A thriving wine-trade, with increasing customers, is thus described (page 13.): 'The dealings of the company were extensive, and *many persons of distinction* honoured him (Mr. Bruce) with their friendship, from a regard for his personal character. By their attention he secured *the favour of the public*,' &c.

The Appendix begins with the correspondence from Algiers, and affords a circumstantial relation of the difficulties with which Mr. Bruce was obliged to struggle in the discharge of his duty as Consul. This is followed by narratives of his journies to Tunis, Tripoli, Balbec, and Palmyra; by correspondence when in Egypt and Abyssinia; and by the letters addressed to him after his return by the celebrated Buffon, and Journu de Montagny of Marseilles. Mr. Bruce's letter to Dr. Burney, on Egyptian and Abyssinian Music, is also inserted in the Appendix, being copied from Dr. Burney's work. A letter from Dr. Blair to the author, written soon after his perusal of the "Travels," affords an example of very courteous criticism*; and

* We have called this letter of Dr. Blair a piece of 'courteous criticism,' and such it certainly is: but the next letter from that eminent preacher is not a sample of 'courteous criticism' with respect to *us*. It endeavours to console Mr. Bruce for the strictures which we passed on his work, by lavishing vulgar and common-place abuse against Reviews, in a tone which does as little credit to Dr. B.'s candour of disposition as to his knowlege of facts; and it professes to support that tone by an alleged coincidence in opinion with the late Dr. Douglas, Bishop of Salisbury, which we are convinced must be an incorrect representation. Bishop Douglas was long and intimately acquainted with the Editor of the Monthly Review, and we

and the correspondence of Mr. Daines Barrington discovers a cordial solicitude for Mr. Bruce's literary reputation.

The succeeding part of the Appendix contains an account of Ethiopic MSS., vocabularies of the barbarous dialects in Abyssinia and the neighbouring provinces, local descriptions and narratives, with engravings of several individuals mentioned by Mr. Bruce, as well as of articles of natural history belonging to these countries. It was objected to the original work that it contained no connected delineation of the Abyssinian manners and customs; and this was a defect which the editor appears to have taken great pains to supply by selections from Mr. Bruce's unpublished papers.

ART. VIII. *Authentic Materials for a History of the People of Malta.* First, Second, Third and Fourth Parts; containing the Form of Government under their own Magistrates, under the Grand Masters, and under the British Civil Commissioners; their former Efforts to regain their ancient Rights and Liberties, and their present Claims thereto; a memorial to the King; Revenues, Expenditure, Coins, Corn-Measure, Agriculture, &c. By William Eton, Esq. Superintendant General of the Quarantine and Public Health Department in Malta, Author of the Survey of the Turkish Empire. 8vo. pp. 270. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

STATISTICAL and financial details, outlines of constitutions, and abstracts of laws, although they furnish little amusement, and are deemed repulsive by most readers, form essential parts of the accounts of all civilized countries. To these documents the present volume is very much confined; and though consequently it will not be generally considered as of the most attractive nature, it furnishes useful information, and will be particularly acceptable to the politician and the historian.

---

we may presume to say that mutual esteem subsisted between them. His personal knowlege of the editor, therefore, and of the circumstances of perfect INDEPENDENCE, *in* EVERY *respect*, which have always characterized this work, would never permit him to speak in the language adopted by Dr. Blair, and to allege that Reviews are "always guided by the interest of some booksellers." Without meaning any sarcasm on the booksellers, the Monthly Review might as truly be said to be guided by the street puppet-shew men, who direct the motions of Punch and his wife Joan.

This letter of Dr. Blair was written just at the time when we were paying that tribute to his sermons which, if he had read it, would probably have induced his self-love to persuade his judgment that Reviewers were not *always* either erroneous or unjust.

The

The article respecting Malta shewed the hollowness of the peace of Amiens, and indicated at once the incapacity of the British cabinet and the bold perfidy of Bonaparte. It ought to have determined the judgment of the public respecting the authors of that measure on this side of the water: but it has happened that the noble Lord who stood forth its advocate, and who may be presumed to have had a principal share in acceding to it, has enjoyed a high share of royal and public confidence under a variety of administrations, and constitutes at this moment a principal pillar of this great state.—In a preliminary discussion of the question of *retaining* Malta, Mr. Eton, however, defends the measure with much ingenuity and ability; and he assigns more plausible and convincing reasons in vindication of Great Britain, than any which are to be found in the arguments and state-papers of the period. The affecting and instructive memorial of the Maltese to the British government, against the surrender of their island to the order of St. John, would not have been made in vain, had cabinets been endowed with any thing approaching to sensibility: but this appeal did not merely address itself to the feelings; it rested on the strongest grounds of justice. Yet the British ministry of the time not only consented to abandon, but actually to deliver over into the hands of old and inveterate oppressors, a free, brave, and high-minded people; who had done all but completely rescue themselves from the French; and who, relying on the good faith of Britons, had thrown themselves into our arms, in the hope and under a promise of protection from all their enemies. It is Mr. Eton's object, therefore, as we have said, to defend the violation of the treaty in the non-fulfilment of this stipulation in it, and to shew the necessity and the justice of 'never ceding Malta to any other power.'

Previously to the cession of the island to the order of St. John of Jerusalem by Charles V.,

'Malta was a republic governed by its own laws; the principal magistrate was named by the King of Sicily; who had the choice out of three persons proposed by the consiglio popolare, or parliament.

'If the magistrate abused the powers committed to him, which were considerable, the parliament had a right to complain to the Suzerain, and demand his removal from office, &c. All other complaints of public grievances were likewise represented to the King of Sicily; who protected the island from foreign enemies; and the Maltese were obliged to make a common cause, and take a share in all wars in which the King of Sicily was engaged. The Maltese enjoyed in his dominions the same privileges as his own subjects, and they enjoyed in Malta all those of the Maltese.'

Even

Even by the terms of this cession, the enjoyment of all their former liberties was confirmed to the Maltese: but it was impossible to preserve them against the power of the Grand Masters:

'Liberty was secured to the people of Malta principally by the institution of a *Consiglio Popolare*, or assembly of national representatives.

'The Maltese appear to have constantly enjoyed the blessings of a free constitution, except at intervals, when they were under a foreign yoke; and even then they unceasingly struggled to break their chains.

'The time when this body was instituted in the exact form now known, is not precisely ascertained, but it was soon after, if not before, the Saracens were forced to evacuate their island, on being expelled Sicily, A.D. 1090.

'In 1396, Martin, King of Aragon, and Mary, gave Malta as a feud, with the title of Marquisate, to Moncada, count of Augosta; but the Maltese, indignant at becoming subjects of an uncrowned head, refused to acknowledge him, and purchased the government of their island of Moncada for 30,000 florins of gold, a large sum in those days, and which he had paid into the royal treasury. The King, by a diploma, dated the 17th November 1397, to which he swore on the Gospel, declared Malta and Gozo inalienable, for ever, from the crown of Spain, and established it as a perpetual law, binding to his successors, not to alienate these islands in any manner whatever, or under any title whatever, either temporarily or perpetually, though the person appointed should even be of the royal blood, and permitting, in case of contrary conduct of the crown, the Maltese nation to resist "*manu forti proquò in nullum crimen, delictum vel inobedientiam incurrere reputentur et aliquatenus consentur, &c.*"—

'This *Consiglio Popolare* was a permanent representation of the whole people. Its existence, and its functions, are acknowledged, authorized, and confirmed by all their Suzerains.

'The gradual encroachments on its rights and privileges, and its final suppression by the Grand Masters, were the principal causes of the disaffection of the Maltese, and of the many conspiracies which were formed to subvert their usurped power.

'In the Consiglio Popolare resided the whole legislative authority.

'It not only nominated the members of the executive government for the management of ordinary affairs; but it watched their conduct, and retained the power of controlling and displacing them.

'The appointment of the principal officer of government, the *capitano*, received the sanction of the Suzerain. The powers of this officer have varied at different periods; but they were always defined, and always limited. Sometimes he has been nominated solely by the Suzerain; sometimes by the Maltese; but generally they submitted to his choice the names of three persons, and this seems to have been the more general and constitutional practice.'—

'All

'All important matters were decided by the popular council. The jurats, as the administrators of public property, were dependent on it, and nominated by it. It took care of the commercial interest of the Universita, and superintended its operations; and for this effect, whenever it became necessary, it nominated procurators, syndics, &c.

'It appointed ambassadors to sovereigns, to negociate on public affairs, and to their Suzerains to ask favours, or complain of violation of privileges, either by themselves or their offices, it being the particular duty of the council to defend rights and privileges.

'This council deputed of its own body a certain number of persons of probity, of the first and second classes (of which the Consiglio Popolare was always composed) to form a Consiglio Particolare, which annually elected by *scrutinio* the new public officers or ministers, the election of whom belonged to the citizens, agreeably to their most ancient privileges.'—

'The public officers in the nomination of the Consiglio Popolare, or the particular council chosen out of its body, were, both in Malta and Gozo, the jurats and the treasurer of the Universita (who compose that magistracy); the acatapani, who were then of the first families, latterly they are a kind of assistants in the markets, and in the affairs of the Universita; the judges, criminal and civil; the superintendent of the city ramparts, and other public edifices; the commissaries of the public health department; procurators of the hospital and public places.'—

'No new duty or tax could be collected without the consent and order of the Consiglio Popolare, and it seems that the consent of the Suzerain, who protected the people individually as well as collectively, was also necessary, at least, to taxes of importance.'—

'With respect to the persons who composed the Consiglio Popolare, it appears by ancient records, that before the coming of the Order of St. John, and many years afterwards, this body was composed of a certain number of persons, of families of the first and second classes, and the representatives of towns, (*casal*) elected by the people, who were called constables (*contestabili*, conétables.) The jurats and all other officers of popular election had a seat in the Consiglio Popolare, on general affairs.'

The statement in the latter part of the ensuing paragraph will somewhat remind the reader of the actual situation of another popular council:

'The government of Malta existed nearly in a constitutional manner for some time after the admission of the Order of St. John; but by degrees encroachments were made; and when the Universita named an ambassador to complain of the danger the people were in, of totally losing all their rights, one of the Grand Masters seized and hanged him. The *Consiglio Popolare* at length ceased to be the representation of the people, and was composed wholly of persons who held offices in the appointment of the Grand Master; and they were consulted merely to levy taxes, to build fortifications and edifices for the use of the Order, or for public convenience.'

It

It is with deep concern that we read in these pages that the British government of Malta accords but little with the natural expectations and hopes of its inhabitants, with their antient liberties, or with the rules and maxims of our own inestimable constitution. One passage will serve to inform the reader how this matter stands:

'General Pigot, when he was invested with the civil as well as military government, was so deceived (for no one doubted the goodness of his heart, or his wish to do justice) as to make a decree, establishing a supreme tribunal, composed of his secretary (whom he intrusted with the management of civil and criminal affairs) and two of his secretary's creatures, who had power to decide in *all matters whatever*, either originally or by appeal, or whenever they chose to take cognizance of matters. This decree was however torn down by the people from the public places where it was stuck up; but Mr. Cameron sent one of these printed decrees to the Secretary of State.'

The form of a government for Malta and Gozo, composed by some of the first lawyers and of the nobility and the principal persons of those islands, (of which a copy is here given,) must, by the free spirit which it breathes, and the wise provisions which it contains, afford high pleasure to every genuine Briton. It proposes the re-establishment of the *Consiglio Popolare*, which is to be wholly a lay assembly, and to consist of 39 persons. The deputies of the nobles are to amount to about one third of the whole, and the remaining deputies are to be returned by the cities and burghs. An ecclesiastical council is also framed, which is to unite itself to this body, when the subject of religion is discussed. No persons holding lucrative executive situations are elegible into this assembly.

The Maltese are most anxious to continue subject to the crown of England: but they at the same time desire that it shall ensure to them the blessings of a liberal government. To their free will we owe the possession of the island, and yet we have not deigned to take any notice of either the one or the other wish of this interesting people, but have continued to exercise over them the despotic sway which the degenerate order had usurped. They have been and still are discontented with this treatment. Mr. Eton has encouraged them to state their grievances, and to seek the removal of them: he has assisted them in the pursuit of their object, and has stood forwards the advocate of their claims; he exposes and inveighs against the unnatural and impolitic conduct of the British councils; and he has insisted on the right of the subject-people to a treatment worthy of their antient privileges, unbroken spirit, and loyal disposition towards Great Britain. This conduct, we find,

find, has exposed Mr. Eton himself to warm persecution from men who disgrace not merely the names of Britons but our nature itself, by being apologists for the exercise of slavish domination over those who volunteered subjection to us. How courts and ministers treat this gentleman, whose bosom glows with feelings so worthy of a British subject in the better days of our country, we are not precisely informed: but of this he may rest assured, that, wherever his conduct and his ill-treatment are known, he will be the object of the esteem and affection of those who respect enlightened views, and who honour generous and manly conduct. We most anxiously and ardently wish him success in his praise-worthy object. If he could interest the public in the fate of fellow-men, and fellow-subjects not unworthy of sharing with us the invaluable blessings of a free government, we might anticipate a desirable result: but can we believe that those, who make a boast of setting their faces against all amelioration at home, will be found to patronize liberal and benignant institutions in a distant dependency; or that those, who foster corruption among ourselves, will encourage purity among strangers? In the present days of national humiliation and national apathy, when commercial avarice has supplanted public spirit,—when false patriotism forbids the exercise of discrimination in regard to public men,—and when it openly maintains that honour, integrity, and ability, are intitled to no preference over servility, venality, and intrigue, and thus insures permanent rule to the latter,—who can be sanguine enough to expect to see a wise and salutary measure adopted, at the dictates of generous feeling, and on the principles of comprehensive policy?

ART. IX. *Reliques of Robert Burns*; consisting chiefly of original Letters, Poems, and critical Observations on Scottish Songs. Collected and published by R. H. Cromek. 8vo. pp. 470. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

OFTEN have we had occasion to observe that no exercise of the judgment is more delicate, than that which is required in the posthumous publication of the remaining works of an admired author. While, on the one hand, the fastidious critic would reject all but the finished productions of Genius; on the other, the literary *bellua* would devour every scrap of composition that can be found in the ransacked portfolios of the departed. The sacredness of the last repose of merit has doubtless been too often violated by this insatiable curiosity; and yet it is so natural a feeling to be desirous of learning all that

that we can obtain of the intellectual character of distinguished writers, that perhaps more readers are pleased with the minute copiousness of Boswell in recording the daily conversation of Johnson, than with the reserve and caution which were adopted by Mason in his Memoirs of Gray. The very full and satisfactory account, however, which Dr. Currie gave us of Burns, and the ample collection of the Poet's works both in prose and verse which was presented to us by that editor*, had not prepared us to expect any undiscovered treasures from the same mine. We were agreeably surprized, therefore, by the present volume; which, although it contains several pieces that are undeserving of publication, and several which have been already printed, yet enriches our stock of poetry with some valuable gleanings, undiscovered by the less active industry of the former editor, or suppressed by the too timid nicety of his acknowleged taste.—In the fragments of Burns's letters, and in his miscellaneous observations, it affords us the still higher gratification of penetrating into the very heart and inmost feelings of this extraordinary man; and on the whole we have been so much pleased with the volume, that, after a few preliminary remarks on a subject which is strongly suggested to our minds by its contents, we shall proceed to lay as much of those contents before our readers as our limits will admit.

Whence does it arise that the race of Poets are so frequently the children of imprudence and of consequent misery? —Not to adopt the illiberal remark of Johnson, "that Gilbert West was one of the few of the tuneful tribe to whom death needed not be terrible," we may with truth and sorrow reflect how many illustrious sons of song have yielded to the wild impulse of their ungovernable feelings; and have carried into life, and the conduct of common affairs, the same turbulence of passion that has been excited by the indulgence of those visionary hopes and fears, which agitate their bosoms in retirement. The fancy has been so inflamed by dwelling in a world of its own creation, where all is noble, generous, and fair; the heart has been so melted by imaginary scenes of distress; and the inlets of real affliction have been so multiplied, if we may thus express ourselves, by the encouragement of every kind of sensibility; that the Poet comes into the society of his fellow-creatures unguarded by caution, and unprepared to meet with any thing but sympathy; dreaming that his "images will find a mirror in every mind, and his sentiments an echo in every bosom." Alas! he is miserably

* See Rev. vol. xxxiv. N. S. pp. 278. 374.

deceived;

deceived;—the world has business of its own to follow, and must calculate on the means of success. Those who know mankind know that indiscretion, in words or actions, cannot be displayed without being remarked and punished. The tongue which speaks all that it thinks, and the heart that is carried in the hand, are not for Society.—Often, also, it must be confessed, such an alliance subsists between a warm imagination and a vicious indulgence in forbidden enjoyments, that the Poet is answerable for his own ruin:—not but that it is accelerated by the envy and uncharitableness of too many around him; wretches who love to help and to see the downfall of excellence which they cannot attain; and whose rancorous observation follows the track by which easiness of temper degenerates into immorality, with affected astonishment, but with real self-complacency. Such men have their reward, in the profits and honours of the world.

> "Yet triumph not, ye self-adoring few!
> Fire, Nature, Genius, never dwelt with you—
> For you no Fancy consecrates the scene
> Where Rapture utters vows, and weeps between!
> 'Tis your's unmov'd to sever and to meet,
> No pledge is sacred, and no home is sweet."
>
> *Pleasures of Hope.*

What a wonderful coincidence of thought do we find in some of the despanding expressions of poor Chatterton, and in the letters of Burns! The same ardent and sanguine minds, the same lofty confidence in their own powers, the same mixture of pride in thinking of the world and of tenderness in thinking of those whom they loved, mark both the poets. The unhappy boy, indeed, had wholly lost the guide and monitor by which Burns at times so strongly held, and which, doubtless, was the chief and effectual restraint on his conduct. The want of a fixed religious principle has assuredly been the cause of most of the miseries that have been brought on themselves, by many of the class of men whom we are now considering. In a highly impressive passage among the prose fragments of Burns, after he has confessed the great source of his unhappiness in life, (namely, "that he has turned his eyes to behold madness and folly,") he adds—"Nay, I have, with all the ardour of a lively, fanciful, and whimsical imagination, with a warm, feeling, poetic heart, shaken hands with their intoxicating friendship;" and he then abruptly closes his advice to "any young man, who, in the vestibule of the world, should chance to throw his eye over these pages," as follows:—"in the first place, let my pupil, as he tenders his own peace, keep up a regular warm intercourse with the Deity!"

That restlessness of disposition, or that incapability of confining the wishes and exertions to one routine of profitable employment, which has proved the destruction of so many poets, is displayed in a striking light throughout Burns's letters. For a short time, we see him carrying his best resolutions into practice; and nobly does he exclaim, though disgusted and heart-sick at his office of exciseman, (an office which we may almost call *unnatural* to him,)

"These muvin things ca'd wives and weans,
Wad muve the very hearts o' stanes!"

but with the fondest conjugal affection, irregularity of conduct in the dull discharge of business will arise, when the mind is liable to be carried away by every new and pleasing train of thought; and, delighted with the imaginary "joys, loves, cares, and even woes" which it embodies in verse, it forgets the serious and pressing duties of necessary though hateful labour. We may readily conceive how often the business of the Excise stood still, while Burns, according to his own description, was sitting and making remarks on the pleasures of a poetical genius, "in the solitary parlour of a solitary inn, over a solitary bottle of wine;" exclaiming, with Goldsmith, to his Muse,

"Thou source of all my bliss, and all my woe,
That found'st me poor at first, and keeps't me so!"

drinking the health of those whom he lov'd, or singing in the sweetest of all strains such tender melodies as the following;

"Thoul't break my heart, thou bonie bird
That sings upon the bough:
Thou minds me o' the happy days,
When my fause love was true!"—

So complete a detail of the several events of Burns's life, collected from his own memorandums and letters, is already before the public, that our task in reviewing this volume will be only that of selecting, without regard to order, from the parts which we consider as most likely to contribute to the amusement of our readers.

We begin with those passages in prose which strongly display the heart of the writer.—Addressing a friend, who, (like too many physical students, embarrassed by difficulties in their researches, and unreasonably doubting the existence of that object whose mode of existence they cannot discover,) had entertained sceptical principles, Burns says (page 20)—"You have shown me one thing, which was to be demonstrated—that strong pride of reasoning, with a little affectation of singularity

singularity, may mislead the best of hearts. I, likewise, since you and I were first acquainted, in the pride of despising old women's stories, ventured in "the daring path Spinosa trod;" but experience of the weakness, not the strength, of human powers, made me glad to grasp at revealed religion." Would that these words, strengthened as they are by his authority and his example who wrote them, could penetrate the heart of those few (we hope) still remaining among us, who proudly limit the power of the Creator by the creature's ignorance.

At page 31. we have a most extraordinary rhapsody, in admiration of Milton's Satan!—but the expressions, we conclude, had startled Burns's correspondent, and he explains himself at page 356. very satisfactorily. No persons are so liable to be misunderstood as men of ardent feelings and imaginations; except by those of congenial temperament. Such men always speak elliptically; that is, leave much to the understanding of their hearers, whom they think it would insult to suppose them to be incapable of supplying the necessary and obvious links in the chain of argument.—"My favourite feature, (says Burns) in Milton's Satan, is his manly fortitude in supporting what cannot be remedied;—in short the wild broken fragments of a noble exalted mind in ruins. This was all I meant by saying he was a favourite hero of mine." There is an energy of language peculiar to Burns, and indeed to all genuine poets. This energy strikes directly at the point in view; and the cold prosing reasoner, lost in the chasm over which the poet has leapt, generously imagines that he also has tumbled into it; when, easily followed by minds of congenial ardour, activity, and strength, he is gone on to realms beyond,—realms of beauty, splendour, and noble imagination. Meanwhile, this misconception of their meaning excites the natural irritability of the race of men in question; and from being wrongfully suspected or accused of dangerous doctrines in the first instance, they are apt in their more incautious, that is, in their more convivial, moments, to utter things from a spirit of contradiction and hostility, which after the splenetic fit is over they heartily regret. That Burns was strongly susceptible of these feelings, many passages in his life testify. An anecdote also occurs in a note (pages 80 and 81.) to this volume, which is illustrative of the fact:

"From a letter which is printed in Dr. Currie's collection, it appears that Burns entertained no great respect for what may be stiled technical criticism. He loved the man who judged of poetical compositions from the heart—but looked with an evil eye upon those who decided by the cold decisions of the head. This is evinced by the following anecdote.

"At a private breakfast, in a literary circle at Edinburgh, to which he was invited, the conversation turned on the poetical merit and pathos of Gray's Elegy, a poem of which he was enthusiastically fond. A clergyman present, remarkable for his love of paradox and for his eccentric notions on every subject, distinguished himself by an injudicious and ill timed attack on this exquisite poem, which Burns, with a generous warmth for the reputation of Gray, manfully defended. As this gentleman's remarks were rather general than specific, Burns urged him to bring forward the passages which he thought exceptionable. He made several attempts to quote the poem, but always in a blundering inaccurate manner. Burns bore all this for a considerable time with his usual good nature and forbearance; till, at length, goaded by the fastidious criticisms and wretched quibblings of his opponent, he roused himself, and with an eye flashing contempt and indignation, and with great vehemence of gesticulation, he thus addressed the cold critic. "Sir,—I now perceive a man may be an excellent judge of poetry by *square and rule*, and after all,—be a d——d blockhead!"

Burns, doubtless, must have lamented this violence; indeed, throughout his letters we see an alternation of good resolutions and of regret for having broken them. These dreadfully painful resting places,—whence the tortured mind looks back on its own mismanagement, whence it sees the rocks which have nearly wrecked it again and again, and whence also it rushes back to expose itself to fresh destruction,—these moments of agonizing remorse, we say, and of ineffectual repentance, appear to have been for ever recurring to Burns; and the words in which he clothes his wretched self-condemnation are so afflictingly natural, strong, and impressive, that we will not unnecessarily recall to our readers' minds the remembrance of what such a man as Burns suffered, nor say more on the subject than is said in two lines, by a poet of much wilder disposition, and of greatly inferior talents—

"He, who these moving strains so well could pour,
Was passion's slave, was indiscretion's child!"

Dermody.

A delicacy and a tenderness pervade most of Burns's reflections on the better part of the creation, which are highly honourable to his character. At page 46. we have the following passage:—"Surely woman, amiable woman, is often made in vain! Too delicately formed for the rougher pursuits of ambition; too noble for the dirt of avarice; and even too gentle for the rage of pleasure; formed indeed for and highly susceptible of enjoyment and rapture: but that enjoyment, alas! almost wholly at the mercy of the caprice, malevolence, stupidity, or wickedness, of an animal at all times comparatively unfeeling, and often brutal." Again, page 102, reflecting

reflecting on the story of some unfortunate and ill-used female, he exclaims—"O man! but for thee, and thy selfish appetites, and dishonest artifices, that beauteous form, and that once innocent and still ingenuous mind, might have shone conspicuous and lovely in the faithful wife, and the affectionate mother; — and shall the unfortunate sacrifice to thy pleasures have no claim on thy humanity?" After such warm and honest tributes to the best consolation of the life of man,—to those whose best consolation he also should be,—we cannot wonder at the deep fondness of attachment to his early love, *Highland Mary*, which is shewn in the following anecdote of Burns, as it is related by his present editor. We shall introduce it with the Poet's own account of his song called "*The Highland Lassie.*"

"This was a composition of mine in very early life, before I was known at all in the world. My Highland Lassie was a warm-hearted, charming young creature as ever blessed a man with generous love. After a pretty long tract of the most ardent reciprocal attachment, we met by appointment, on the second Sunday of May, in a sequestered spot by the Banks of Ayr, where we spent the day in taking a farewel, before she should embark for the West-Highlands, to arrange matters among her friends for our projected change of life. At the close of Autumn following she crossed the sea to meet me at Greenock, where she had scarce landed when she was seized with a malignant fever, which hurried my dear girl to the grave in a few days, before I could even hear of her illness *."

* "There are events in this transitory scene of existence, seasons of joy or of sorrow, of despair or of hope, which as they powerfully affect us at the time, serve as epochs to the history of our lives. They may be termed the trials of the heart.—We treasure them deeply in our memory, and as time glides silently away they help us to number our days. Of this character was the parting of *Burns* with his *Highland Mary*, that interesting female, the first object of the youthful Poet's love. This adieu was performed with all those simple and striking ceremonials which rustic sentiment has devised to prolong tender emotions and to inspire awe. The lovers stood on each side of a small purling brook; they laved their hands in its limpid stream, and holding a bible between them, pronounced their vows to be faithful to each other. They parted—never to meet again!

'The anniversary of *Mary Campbell*'s death, (for that was her name,) awakening in the sensitive mind of *Burns* the most lively emotion, he retired from his family, then residing on the farm of Ellisland, and wandered, solitary, on the banks of the Nith, and about the farm yard, in the extremest agitation of mind, nearly the whole of the night: his agitation was so great that he threw himself on the side of a corn-stack, and there conceived his sublime and tender elegy—his address *To Mary in Heaven*.'

In Burns's remarks on Scotch songs, (transcribed from an interleaved copy in four volumes of the Scots Musical Museum, in which they were written by the Poet,) we find ample evidence of his good taste, and a strong illustration of the truth of an old saying, "that the best poets are the best critics:" but, at the same time, we cannot help perceiving many instances in which nationality has prevailed over judgment; and in which the coarseness and vulgarity of the Scotch dialect (of late so ridiculously compared to the soft and sweetest Doric of Theocritus) is preferred to purer English, only because it is Scotch. We have resolved, however, to leave our readers to discover the exceptionable parts by their own sagacity, and to present them with nothing but the flowers of the collection. This is due to the memory of such a poet as Burns; who perhaps would neither have praised nor published all these pieces, had he yet been able to exercise his judgment on them. — As to his predilection for his native dialect, we shall only observe that in our opinion his best performances are those which are written in the purest English, or in which the Scotch is most easily understood. Which among his songs is superior in animation and delicacy to "Their groves of green myrtle let foreign lands reckon?" or his tender dirge of "Man was made to mourn?" or, among many other beautiful pieces equally intelligible to English readers, his sweetly-pathetic stanzas mentioned above—"Ye flowery banks o' bonie Doon?"—The two subjoined stanzas are among his Anglo-Scottish specimens; and to shew how natural this language was to him, we shall only remark that they were written at the age of seventeen:

'I dream'd I lay where flowers were springing,
Gaily in the sunny beam;
List'ning to the wild birds singing,
By a falling, chrystal stream:
Straight the sky grew black and daring;
Thro' the woods the whirlwinds rave;
Trees with aged arms were warring,
O'er the swelling, drumlie wave.
Such was my life's deceitful morning,
Such the pleasures I enjoy'd;
But lang or noon, loud tempests storming
A' my flow'ry bliss destroy'd.
Tho' fickle fortune has deceiv'd me,
She promis'd fair, and perform'd but ill;
Of mony a joy and hope bereav'd me,
I bear a heart shall support me still.'

Again, how would the beauty of the following extract from his youthful song to his mistress be disfigured by being clothed

clothed in the ruder Scottish language, which obscures some of the ballads here printed; and in which ballads (especially those that are not Burns's own) we plainly see that "repetition indeed, *and nothing else*, is the soul of poetry."

'She is not the fairest, although she is fair;
O' nice education but sma' is her share;
Her parentage humble as humble can be;
But I lo'e the dear lassie because she lo'es me.

To beauty what man but maun yield him a prize,
In her armour of glances, and blushes, and sighs;
And when wit and refinement ha'e polished her darts,
They dazzle our een, as they flie to our hearts.

But kindness, sweet kindness, in the fond sparkling e'e,
Has lustre outshining the diamond to me;
And the heart-beating love, as I'm clasp'd in her arms,
O, these are my lassie's all-conquering charms!'

To the traits of poetical character throughout this volume, as to a subject of very interesting and useful reflection, we have wished to direct the particular attention of our readers. Those which are described in the following letter are striking and impressive:

"As I am what the men of the world, if they knew such a man, would call a whimsical mortal, I have various sources of pleasure and enjoyment, which are, in a manner, *peculiar* to myself, or some here and there such other out-of-the-way person. Such is the peculiar pleasure I take in the season of winter, more than the rest of the year. This, I believe, may be partly owing to my misfortunes giving my mind a melancholy cast: but there is something even in the

"Mighty tempest, and the hoary waste
Abrupt and deep, stretch'd o'er the buried earth,"

which raises the mind to a serious sublimity, favourable to every thing great and noble. There is scarcely any earthly object gives me more —I do not know if I should call it pleasure—but something which exalts me, something which enraptures me—than to walk in the sheltered side of a wood, or high plantation, in a cloudy-winter-day, and hear the stormy wind howling among the trees, and raving over the plain. It is my best season for devotion: my mind is wrapt up in a kind of enthusiasm to *Him*, who, in the pompous language of the Hebrew bard, "walks on the wings of the wind." In one of these seasons, just after a train of misfortunes, I composed the following:"—

This poem we must omit, from want of room: but it confirms our opinion that Burns's best style was the English or Anglo-Scottish; as do the equally pious and poetical stanzas at pages 336, 337, and 338, and the correct and spirited lines on Scotland, introduced into an ode to liberty, designed in honour of General Washington's birth-day, page 157,—and even above these

these the subjoined most rapturous love-song, which we cannot forbear to quote:

'Tune—*Banks of Banna.*

'Yestreen I had a pint o' wine,
A place where body saw na';
Yestreen lay on this breast o' mine
The gowden locks of Anna.
The hungry Jew in wilderness
Rejoicing o'er his manna,
Was naething to my hinny bliss
Upon the lips of Anna.

'Ye monarchs tak the east and west,
Frae Indus to Savannah!
Gie me within my straining grasp
The melting form of Anna.
There I'll despise imperial charms,
An Empress or Sultana,
While dying raptures in her arms
I give and take with Anna!

'Awa thou flaunting god o' day!
Awa thou pale Diana!
Ilk star gae hide thy twinkling ray
When I'm to meet my Anna.
Come, in thy raven plumage, night,
Sun, moon, and stars withdrawn a';
And bring an angel pen to write
My transports wi' my Anna!'

After these numerous extracts, we can only refer our readers to the volume itself for many more fragments that are remarkable for either tenderness or vigour; and for a variety of happy and original observations on such subjects as form the usual amusement of a highly poetical imagination:—not to mention several little pieces that are full of sarcasm and humour.

We shall conclude our remarks with one more passage from Burns's letters, still keeping in view the principal object of our present reflections.—"Misfortune dodges the path of human life;—the poetical mind finds itself miserably deranged in, and unfit for the walks of business; add to all, that thoughtless follies and hare-brained whims, like so many *ignes fatui*, eternally diverging from the right line of sober discretion, sparkle with stupefying blaze in the idly-gazing eyes of the poor heedless bard, till he falls, like Lucifer, never to rise again."—The passages that follow on his own state we omit: but they are as worthy of our serious meditation, as they are of our warm sympathy. How just do these and similar

similar passages in the works of Burns make Waston's observation appear, which occurs in the first volume of his admirable essay on Pope:—"If the imagination be lively, the passions will be strong. True genius seldom resides in a cold phlegmatic constitution. The same temperament and the same sensibility that makes a man a poet or a painter, will be apt to make a man a lover and a debauchee."—Bear witness to the truth of this, ye departed children of genius and indiscretion! Reflect and act upon it, ye who may yet survive!

We must not dismiss these 'Reliques' without repeating to Mr. Cromek our thanks for the obligation which he has conferred on literature by this publication. His ardent zeal and indefatigable industry in recovering all the fragments of his author, that were scattered about his native country or elsewhere, are highly commendable, and are recorded in modest and feeling language in his preface. It is to this sentiment of veneration for the remains of Genius, that we are indebted for many valuable additions to our stock of innocent and rational entertainment.—We shall say no more on the few pieces or letters in this volume which perhaps had better not have been published. Mr. Cromek tells us that he has kept back much of his collection; and we are bound to conclude, from the manner in which this selection has on the whole been conducted, that, while we have nothing to regret in what is withholden, the utmost caution and judgment (and, after all, what caution and judgment will be sufficient to please every body?) that were consistent with a due respect for the memory of the author and a due value for his exalted talents, were exercised on what is admitted *. Let, then, Mr. Cromek fairly indulge the hope which concludes his preface:

'In the manner of laying these papers before the public, I honestly declare that I have done my best; and I trust I may fairly presume to hope that the man who has contributed to extend the bounds of literature by adding another genuine volume to the writings of Robert Burns, has some claim on the gratitude of his countrymen. On this occasion I certainly feel something of the sublime and heart-swelling gratification, which he experiences, who casts another stone on the Cairn of a great and lamented chief.'

* We must except the carelessness by which the song of "Evan Banks," the property of H. M. Williams, is here again given to Burns.

ART.

ART. X. *The Doctrine of Interest and Annuities analytically investigated and explained*; together with several useful Tables connected with the Subject. By Francis Baily, of the Stock Exchange. 4to. 15s. Boards. Richardson. 1808.

ON the subject set forth in the title-page, the present is perhaps as complete a treatise as any that we possess. It contains not, indeed, much novel matter: but this could not be expected, when we consider that the investigation is of no great intricacy, and has frequently engaged the attention of respectable mathematicians. Dr. Price's work, as edited by Mr. Morgan, affords, with much other matter, the substance probably of all that Mr. Baily's treatise includes: but then the related matter is neither arranged nor collected, but is dispersed through various parts of the volumes. While this circumstance forms no objection against that most valuable publication, it furnishes a reason for the appearance of the one which is now before us.

Mr. Baily, however, finds in that work some ground of dissent and controversy. The Doctor objected to De Moivre's method of ascertaining the present values of annuities payable half yearly, quarterly, &c., and gave theorems of his own for that purpose *; which theorems, or rather the principle on which their demonstration is founded, Mr. Baily reprobates in strong terms. We wish that he had demonstrated its fallacy by cogent reasons; or (which he certainly ought to have done) had luminously exposed the two different modes of computation. If r denote the interest of 1l. for a year, then, according to Dr. Price, the value of an annuity for n years, payable half yearly,

$$= \frac{1}{1+\frac{r}{2}} + \frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{2}\right)^2} + \&c. + \frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{2}\right)^{2n}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{f.\left(1+\frac{r}{2}\right)^{2n}}$$

According to Mr. Baily, the present value

$$= \frac{1}{(1+r)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \frac{1}{1+r} + \frac{1}{(1+r)^{\frac{3}{2}}} - + \frac{1}{(1+r)^n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1+r)}-1} - \frac{1}{2}\,\frac{1}{\left\{\sqrt{(1+r)}-1\right\}(1+r)^n}$$

* See Phil. Trans. Vol. 66. Part I. and Observations on Reversionary Payments, p. 382. fifth edition.

This

This formula, however, Mr. B. says, is true only when the interest is paid yearly:—if the interest were paid half yearly, then the formula would agree with that of Dr. Price. Mr. B. gives several formulæ for the present values of annuities payable quarterly, &c. on the several suppositions that the interest is payable half yearly, quarterly, or momently. Thus, if the present value of an annuity, payable quarterly, (the interest being received half yearly,) be required, it equals

$$\frac{1}{4}\left\{\frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}+\frac{1}{1+\frac{r}{2}}+\frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}+\&c.\right\}$$

but, if the interest be payable quarterly, then the present value equals

$$\frac{1}{4}\left\{\frac{1}{1+\frac{r}{4}}+\frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{4}\right)^{2}}+\frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{4}\right)^{3}}+\&c.\right\}$$

Mr. Baily is of opinion that a want of attention to this condition of the problem, viz. the periodical payments of the interest, occasioned what he is pleased to consider as Dr. Price's errors: for he says;

'I presume that it was an inattention to this distinction between the periodical payments of the *annuity*, and of the *interest*, which led Dr. Price and Mr. Morgan to attack Mr. de Moivre's method of deducing the value of annuities payable YEARLY, HALF-YEARLY, QUARTERLY, &c. The works of that profound analyst, however, suffer little from such incautious remarks. See Phil. Trans. vol. lxvi. p. 212, or Price's *Obs. on Rev. Pay.* vol. i. p. 241. 263.; and Mr. Morgan's note in p. 251 of the same volume; ed. 1803. Also p 99 of my *Tables for the purchasing and renewing of Leases*, 2d edition.'

The other passage in which, on the same grounds, Mr. B. censures Dr. Price, is this;

'About five years after Mr. Robertson had given (in 1770) to the Royal Society *The Investigations of twenty Cases of Compound Interest*, Dr. Price (whose labours on this subject are entitled to the highest respect and commendation) sent to the Royal Society a paper containing *Short and easy Theorems for finding, in all cases, the differences between the values of annuities payable Yearly, and of the same annuities payable Half-yearly, Quarterly, or Momently.* In this paper, the learned author gives a new method of determining the value of annuities payable at less intervals than a whole year; and the results are *different* from those obtained by the method then in use. For, it should be observed that, hitherto, the method of finding the value of half-yearly or quarterly annuities was always on the supposition of a given *annual* rate of interest; and this is the only correct mode where the periods of the payments of the *annuity only* are supposed to vary. It is on this principle that all the preceding writers, from Mr. Ward down

down to the period here alluded to, have founded their rules for determining the values of such annuities: but Dr. Price has assumed as an hypothesis, that the periods for the payment of the *interest also* vary with the annuity in every such case; a circumstance by no means connected with the preceding one, since the two hypotheses are totally independent of each other.

'M. D'Alembert in his memoir *Sur les Annuités*, inserted in the eighth volume of his *Opuscules Mathematiques* (1780), has entered into an investigation of this very subject; and in which he supports the principles laid down by all former authors, in opposition to this new hypothesis. He has also given a very ingenious explanation of his theory, by means of the Logarithmic Curve: a method, however, which had been adopted above sixty years before, by Dr. Keill, in his elegant little tract *On Logarithms*, inserted at the end of his edition of Euclid.'

We cannot say that we are convinced of Dr. Price's erroneous mode of computation by either of these passages, since the author does not distinctly shew why it is necessarily wrong. On the other hand, a note in the second volume of the *Reversionary Payments* gives some sort of a proof that De Moivre's mode of computation, which Mr. B. adopts, is erroneous: for it is there stated that, according to that mode, the present value of an annuity payable quarterly, to continue 70 years, at 6 per cent. rate of interest, would exceed the value of the perpetuity paid annually. This seems to be a real objection against De Moivre's principle of computation; and we wish that Mr. B., since he is conscious of its existence, had endeavoured to answer it.

Perhaps, however, it is of no great practical importance whether Dr. Price's or De Moivre's mode of computation be adopted; because it is, with reference to transactions in life, of no consequence to know the value of annuities payable every month, or week, or momently. As a mere speculative question, however, if it had been more particularly and precisely stated, with the arguments *pro* and *con*, we would with pleasure have directed our attention to it, and have distinctly given our judgment.

Several useful tables are inserted in this work: but we notice that, in the one for *Renewals*, the seven per cent. column is omitted; and yet, according to the practice of corporate bodies who receive fines for renewals, this is the column which is most frequently wanted.—In arranging and stating his matter, the author has laboured with very considerable success. He endeavours to make himself understood: but he indulges in hopes too sanguine, when he thinks that he has made the passage through his book perfectly easy to a person who is acquainted with the solution of simple equations, with logarithms, and with the method of series. This last term, however

ever, is somewhat vague, and may be made to imply, by a great extension of meaning, almost all pure mathematics. In a second part, the author proposes to deliver the doctrine of Life Annuities and Assurances.

ART. XI. *The First Book of Titus Lucretius Carus; of the Nature of Things.* Translated into English Verse by the Rev. Wm. Hamilton Drummond (of Belfast). Crown 8vo. pp. 79. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN our review of Mr. Good's translation of Lucretius, (Vol. 54. N. S. p. 387) we fully examined the character, the different degrees of praise attributed in different ages to that character, and, in short, the whole history of the Epicurean Poet. We also gave a detailed account of the merits of his translators; and, after having observed that Creech, the first Englishman who versified the whole of this author, had left a vacuum in our literature that was not yet filled, even by the translator then immediately under our review, we invited some future attempt to render Lucretius into *good* English rhyme. We are happy to announce that this attempt has been successfully made by Mr. Drummond; we say successfully, though he has yet presented us with only the first book of his original: but, after such a specimen, we strenuously encourage him to proceed; and, if he does not, he will play the part of genius concealing its strength;—

> —"*parcentis viribus, atque*
> *Extenuantis eas consultò.*"

Creech wrote in rhyme, and scarcely in rhyme; since he was by nature a versifier, and only by courtesy a poet. However, he adopted the proper sort of verse for a classical translation; for had Mr. Good written blank verse like Milton himself, or any other great hero of this measure, still it would have been blank verse, and, as such, unfit for a classical translation. We want every check that can be imposed on us when translating a Greek, and much more a Latin writer into English, in order that we may not bury the original thought under a pyramid of modern words, as barbarous in structure as it is enormous in size. Such a check is afforded by rhyme, while blank verse creates and indulges every license. The objection to the former that it is difficult, and consequently leads to the paltry labour of looking for the jingle of the couplet, inducing a neglect of the sense and of just expression, is an objection made by those who never practically

tically felt how easy it was to convey the fullest and freest thoughts in this old English vehicle.

The facility of composing blank verse is not confined to illustrious writers. Scarcely a youth of sixteen can be found in the United Kingdom, who has not been drawn for the local militia, pressed for the navy, bound apprentice to a grocer, or set up as a schoolmaster, who cannot write and has not written (with a very few exceptions) sundry poems in blank verse. We need not the exquisitely ludicrous proof of the ease with which this species of verse may be composed, which is exhibited in Lexiphanes, to prove to us that a newspaper may be blank-versified extempore by any person who has a moderate ear, and a ready collection of expletives. This being the case, as we contend it is, and the English language absolutely running into blank verse as naturally as or more naturally than the Greek ran into Iambics, (the metre, as Horace says, adapted to conversation, "*alternis aptum sermonibus,*") surely an Englishman has great temptation to render an antient poet loosely and paraphrastically, if he translates his works into blank verse; and where great temptation presents itself, great delinquency too often follows. Nothing is so delightful to an author as to feel or fancy himself right at once; that is, to acquiesce in the first suggestions of his mind; and the very difficulty of finding rhymes (supposing that it is difficult) must counteract the bad effects of this inclination. If this difficulty does not exist, we may depend on a fact which experience has proved;—that the best writers of rhyme have been excellent in the compression and vigour of their style,—in conveying many thoughts in few words. Dryden, Pope, and Prior, are noble examples of the truth of this assertion. Milton may be brought on the other side, but can Thomson? can any other writer? Is it not the fact, whatever may be the cause, that our didactic and descriptive, nay all our blank-verse-writers, (except our older dramatists,) have run into a prolixity and exuberance of language, an Asiatic ornament, a *verbiage*, as unpoetical as it is unreasonable?

This *verbiage* Mr. Good most lamentably displayed; and we wished that it had been in our power, when we reviewed his book, to compliment him as much on his command of English poetical expression, as we could with respect to his Greek, Latin, Italian, and we know not what other antient and modern learning. Mr. Good is a scholar, but not a poet. Mr. Drummond, we think, is both. His analysis of the contents of the first book of Lucretius is luminous and satisfactory;

meriting, indeed, far nobler matter; and his translation of it, with the exception of the passages pre-occupied by the gigantic mastery of Dryden, is by much the best that we have ever seen. We shall not now trouble our readers with a detail of dull and exploded Epicurean doctrines; nor even do Mr. Drummond the justice of quoting his account of them; (which is better, most probably, than any that we could draw up ourselves; for, where genius is manifest, we do not forget that exclusive attention must effect something:) but we shall enable the public to judge whether the following verses be not good in themselves,—whether they do not fairly and fully on the whole represent Lucretius,—and whether, if they do, and are the forerunners of others equally good, Mr. Drummond will not deserve the praise of being the only adequate representative of that divine old poet, to whom our nation can lay claim:

'Long human life lay grovelling on the ground,
In galling chains of Superstition bound,
That horrid monster, whose terrific head
Lowered from the heavens, and shook the world with dread,
Till one bold Greek dared all her rage defy,
And marked her visage with undaunted eye;
That noble Greek, whose truth-illumined soul
Not all the powers of heaven could e'er controul,
Nor threat'ning bolts loud volleying from above,
Nor all the thunders of our fabled Jove:
They only roused his ardent spirit more,
To burst those bounds that ne'er were burst before,
Nature's close bulwarks;—with superior sway
His soul in triumph forced resistless way
Beyond the limits of the mundane frame,
That rise impaled in ever-during flame.
He soon explored the vast unbounded plan,
Shewed whence and how this beauteous scene began;
To what creation's plastic powers extend,
Their range, their limits, origin and end—
Crushed in her turn fell Superstition lies
Beneath our feet inglorious, ne'er to rise—
The daring triumph to the blest abodes
Exalts us mortals equal to the gods.
'Fear not lest Error pour a guilty lay,
Or impious Science lead the soul astray;
But hear, O hear, to what atrocious deeds
The direful power of Superstition leads.
Let Aulis tell how, shackled in her chain,
The best, the bravest of the Grecian train,
At Dian's fane with Iphigenia stood,
And the pure shrine defiled with purer blood.

Her

Her virgin locks a holy band enrolled,
And veiled her cheeks beneath its simple fold:
Before her weeping friends, the altar nigh,
Stood her sad sire, nor raised his streaming eye;
While the fierce priests, tho' eager for her life,
His woe respected, and concealed the knife:
On knee submissive sunk the virgin low
In speechless grief and mute-imploring woe;
But vain were tears, and vain a daughter's name,
Her royal lineage, and a first-born's claim;
For to the altar, trembling and dismayed,
By cruel hands was dragged the spotless maid.
O how unlike the gay elated bride,
Led from the fane in Hymen's festive pride!
She, ripe for bridal joys, in all her bloom,
Meets from her priest-led sire an early doom,
And falls, the purchase of the vagrant breeze,
To waft his navy o'er the Phrygian seas.
Such foul submission Superstition craves,
Such the fell deeds to which she drives her slaves.'

We have purposely omitted the far-famed and most beautiful description of the dawning glories of spring; not only because we quoted it in our review of Mr. Good, but because Mr. Drummond, however well he may have translated this passage, (and he has translated it very well,) cannot but fall short of the immortal Dryden who has here put forth his *strongest strength*.— In that noble passage, however, in which (at the end of his first book) Lucretius attempts to expose the absurdity of the Peripatetics, who contended that a solid heaven surrounds the universe, to prevent the dispersion of its component parts through infinite space,—in that noble passage, Mr. Drummond has amply shewn that, where no greater predecessor had baffled his endeavours, he too can be great, can be poetical, can be original:

'They fondly urge that heaven the whole surrounds
With solid, strong, insuperable bounds,
Lest like winged flame the barriers of the sphere
Should sudden burst, and thro' the void career,
And heaven's bright temples 'mid their thunder fall,
Earth sink beneath, and ruin whelm us all,
Dissolved to atoms, and with earth and heaven
Far thro' th' enormous waste confus'dly driven,
Nor in an instant leave behind a trace
But senseless atoms and deserted space.
From whate'er point primordial seeds you strike,
That moment ruin grasps the whole alike,
The gates of death fly open to the blow,
Thro' which th' out-rushing seeds of crowded matter flow.'

We

We will not weaken the effect of these animated lines by any other remark than one.—Mr. Drummond has translated the abstruse, the metaphysical, or, more accurately speaking, the nonsensical passages of this first book of Lucretius, better than they deserved. If he will beware of suffering his philosophy to freeze his poetry, we may express a hope as well as a wish, that he may translate the rest of this majestic though most irregular poem as happily as he has translated the beginning.

ART. XII. *Logic*, or an Essay on the Elements, Principles, and different Modesof Reasoning. By Richard Kirwan, Esq., LL. D. P.R.I.A. F.R.S., &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Mackinlay.

IT is remarked by the author of these volumes that many of the rules and observations, which an exact treatise of logic ought to comprize, are wanting in the publications on that subject by Messrs. de Port-royal, Le Clerc, Watts, and Duncan; to which he might have added that of Mr. Collard*, which displays throughout great acuteness, and in many of its parts lays claim to originality:—but this is not the only circumstance which calls for a new work on this head of general science; the masterly and subtle reasonings of Berkeley and Hume have extended its range, and furnished additional illustrations of its rules; while the profound investigations of Hartley have simplified its principles, and removed the rubbish which concealed its foundations from our view. The respectable writer before us does not seem to have been a stranger to these latter inducements: but we think that it may be questioned whether he felt them in their full force, and has duly availed himself of them.

Before we proceed to our observations on this work, we shall endeavour to rectify an important misconception under which it seems to us that Mr. Kirwan has laboured. It occurs in his preface, where he says:

'Some have been led to imagine, "that the true way of acquiring a habit of reasoning closely, and in train, is to exercise ourselves in mathematical demonstrations; that having got the way of reasoning which that study necessarily brings the mind to, they may be able to transfer it to other parts of knowlege as they shall have occasion." This, however, is an egregious mistake; the mode of reasoning of mathematicians being founded on the relation of identity or equality, is not transferable to any other science, into which mathematical con-

* See Rev. Vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 197.

siderations do not enter, as ethics, jurisprudence, whether natural or municipal, medicine, chemistry, &c. theology, metaphysics, &c. which are founded on relations entirely different. On the contrary, the habit of mathematical reasoning, seems to unfit a person for reasoning justly on any other subject, for accustomed to the highest degree of evidence, a mathematician frequently becomes insensible to any other. Thus *D'Alembert*, one of the ablest mathematicians of the last century, was, as *Mr. La Harpe* tells us, a sceptic in every thing else; though under the guidance of no unruly passion, his letters shew him to have been an inveterate enemy to Christianity. *Condorcet* was not less so. *Proclus*, an eminent mathematician of the fifth century, wrote most absurdly on other subjects, and particularly a refutation of the Christian religion. *Fatio*, a distinguished mathematician of the beginning of the last century, became a downright fanatic. Bishop Warburton tells us, that the oldest mathematician then in England, was the worst reasoner in it. *Barbeyrac*, in the preface to his translation of *Grotius*, *De Jure Belli et Pacis*, informs us, that a mathematician undertook to refute it, but of this refutation he says, "*on n'a jamais rien vu de plus pitoyable, et on seroit surpris qu'un mathematicien pût si mal raisonner, si l'on n'avoit d'autres exemples bien plus illustres, qui montrent clairment que l'étude des mathematiques, ne rend pas toujours l'esprit plus juste en matiere de choses qui sont hors de la sphere de ces sciences.*" And *Le Clerc* remarks, "*qui assuti sunt mathematicis ideis, quæ facilime a se invicem distinguuntur, et animadvertuntur, ubi volunt secundum note artis regulas de rerum publicarum aut domesticarum administratione judicare, ineptissima ferunt judicia.*"

We see no variance between the sentiments of Mr. Kirwan and those of the persons on whom he animadverts. He and the writers whom he quotes are speaking of the effects on the mind of the habits of a professed mathematician; while Mr. Locke, and those who recommend the exact sciences, are referring to the elementary study of them as an exercise of logic.

We coincide with Mr. K. in thinking that:

"The knowledge of logick is of the highest importance in all controversies, wherein reason alone presides, particularly in the commonest of all, legal controversies: the science of special pleading, in particular, is founded on the strictest observation of its rules. So is also the art of taking just exceptions to answers; of detecting the fallacies of arguments; of briefly collecting and presenting them in their full force; in laying down and applying the rules of evidence, according to the subject matter; in assigning and applying the due interpretation of words or clauses in statutes, covenants, agreements, deeds, devises, &c. The rules of evidence, with respect to facts, should be diligently attended to in these countries, where all men are liable to be set on juries, and particularly by justices of the peace, to whose decision many matters are referred, and even, in many cases, the liberty of the subject. Hence, the great and virtuous judge, Sir John Eardly Wilmot, in a letter to his son, whom he intended for the legal profession,

fession, tells him, "logick is certainly dry and unentertaining, but stretch all the nerves and sinews of your mind to attain it, for it is of infinite use in setting a keen edge upon the understanding, and besides it gives an eagle eye in detecting false reasoning and sophistry. I never knew an able logician who did not acknowledge and feel the utility of it in forensic practice."

We do not consider the rules and classifications of logic as practically to be adopted in the emergencies to which they are systematically applicable; they are too abstracted and too subtle, and the process is too slow and cumbrous. It is as a discipline of the mind,—as teaching it the more readily to detect, and the more briefly and effectually to expose, fallacies in reasoning,—that this head of science is of the most use.

Mr. Kirwan has shewn judgment and diligence in his selections of what was essential to his subject, from the works of his more approved predecessors. The most considerable of his additions occur in the chapters which treat of propositions; in the parts in which Ratiocination, and its essential principles and different effects, are considered; in the chapters in which calculation is applied to probability; and in those which investigate the means that are requisite to obtain truth from living witnesses, and the methods of interpreting written documents.

The detail which is here given of the varieties of propositions is justified on the ground that so much use is made of them in legal and theological controversies: but a better reason, perhaps, is that which was assigned on the same occasion by Messieurs de Port-royal, namely the useful exercise for the mind which the subtlety and intricacy of the disquisitions supply.

In treating on the effects of ratiocination, we could have wished that the author had gone farther into the philosophy of the subject, and had familiarized the student with the illustrations of it which have been given by Dr. Hartley.

Our readers will be able to form a judgment of the style of this performance from the following specimens:

'A very important mistake with respect to the use of words has been committed by most writers, previous to the age of the discerning Berkeley, in supposing that general words primarily denoted general abstract ideas. For since it is certain that ideas are transcripts of things perceived by sense, it is evident that *since no general thing* exists, but all existing things are particular, so ideas must be the transcripts of particular things only: thus as all the men now existing (or that have ever existed) are particular individuals, and as no such thing can exist as *man in general*, so all ideas of men must be the ideas of particular men, and not of man in general, unless the idea of

one particular man may be said to represent, as it does in many respects, *all men*. Thus a line an inch long, may be said to represent a line of any length; for when a geometrician requires you to draw a *line*, he leaves it to your choice to draw a line of any length you please; or if he requires you to form a triangle, without saying any thing more, he leaves it to your choice to form an equilateral triangle, an isosceles, or a scalenum. Which ever of these you form, it represents all the others in the general properties of a triangle. Thus the proposition, that the three angles of a right-lined triangle, are equal to two right angles, is equally true with respect to any of the abovementioned.'—

'There is also a circumstance which rendered this subject dark and intricate, first discovered by Dr. Berkeley, which must appear surprising to every one; namely, that words are understood even when they excite no distinct idea or notion whatsoever. Thus the words or figures 102 and 108, for instance, are well understood, and the latter known to exceed the former, though we can form no idea or representation of either of these numbers abstracted from the words or figures that denote them; nay, not even if they were applied to particular things. It is then sufficient that we should know that their precise meaning was once *definitely* understood by us, and may still, if investigated, be clearly assigned and enumerated; nay, the ideas even of sensible things do not arise in our minds, when the words that denote them are heard.'

In the subsequent passage, the author clearly convicts Mr. Hume of a gross inadvertence:

'Mr. Hume thinks that *chance* properly denotes the negation of any cause; but that an event should happen without any cause, appears to me, and to the rest of mankind, perfectly impossible. He grounds this assertion on the observation, that chance leaves the mind perfectly indifferent, either to consider the existence or non existence of the object, regarded as contingent; whereas this indifference evidently arises from the known equality of the causes that lead to different events, and ignorance of the circumstances leading to the effect of some one of them, which must destroy the apprehended equilibrium. Thus we know that there are on one common die, six sides, on each of which, after projection, it is capable of resting, and of thus presenting a different face; but of the circumstances that determine it to rest on one face rather than on another, we are ignorant, and consequently we are left in a state of indifference, or rather of indecision. He adds, "that since an entire indifference is essential to chance, no one chance can possibly be superior to another, otherwise than as it is composed of a *superior number* of chances." It is strange he did not perceive the absurdity of superior number of *nothings*.'

The most novel part of the first volume is that which treats of the application of calculation to probability. Such disquisitions are properly introduced in a treatise of logic; and the doctrine is stated by the author with great clearness, and well elucidated. We are, however, far from thinking that it has

has enabled him to furnish us with that logical balance, which correctly ascertains the weight of moral proofs. In our opinion, the general rules and conclusions, at which writers on this subject have arrived, are rather indirectly than directly aiding to the exercise of our judgment on moral subjects; they rather furnish analogies and suggest reflections, which extend our views and assist our apprehensions, than admit of any precise application in reference to moral inquiries; and, regarded in this light, we consider them as of very high utility. This part of the present work has been very successfully executed; and, aware of the importance and curious nature of the topic, Mr. K. has taken laudable pains to render it intelligible to persons of ordinary comprehensions and attainments. His manner of treating it may be collected from the ensuing extract:

'The known possibility of any event is called a *chance*; and where there are several known causes equally capable of producing different events, it is inferred that there are as many *chances* of those events; and when it is known that some or other of those causes have acted, or must necessarily act, those chances have been, in a loose way and improperly, called *probabilities* by writers on the doctrine of chances.

'The doctrine of chances is that, which from a given number of events equally possible, (as far as we know,) infers the probability or improbability of each, or of the combinations of each; and also from a certain number of events, or combinations of events, infers their causes. The distinction of casual and empiric probabilities has been already noted.

'Thus if we take a common die, and suppose the turning up of each of its six faces equally possible, it is *certain* that on projecting it, some one or other of these six faces will be turned up: for it must lie on some or other of these faces, and then the opposite face will appear, and hence each of these faces may be called the cause of the appearance of the opposite face: but as only one of these faces can shew an ace, the chance of throwing an ace, is only one chance out of six chances, or $\frac{1}{6}$, and the odds against it are five out of six, or $\frac{5}{6}$ of a certainty.

'Hence *the general rule is*, that if among a certain number of equal possibilities or chances, there are some favourable to a given event, that is, tend to produce it, and some adverse to its production, or productive of a different or contrary event, the probability or improbability of such event, is as the number of the favourable chances, divided by the sum of all the chances, both favourable and unfavourable; as in the last example, there was only one chance of casting an ace, and five chances of throwing other Numbers. The sum of both was $1 + 5$, that is 6.

'Therefore the sum of all the known chances, favourable and unfavourable, to an event, is equal to the sum of all the possibilities of any event. And as those that are favourable are only a part or fraction of the whole number of possibilities, they are expressed by a

fraction, as in the above example, and for the same reason so may those that are adverse to it. Now the favourable and unfavourable together make up the whole of the chances: therefore if the fractions expressing each of them be added together, they make up an *unit*. So in the above examples, $\frac{1}{6}$ added to $\frac{5}{6} = \frac{6}{6} = 1$.

'Again, as in every case it is *certain* that a given event will either happen or not happen, all the possibilities favourable and unfavourable are comprehended, and consequently *certainty* is expressed by an *unit*; therefore the highest probabilities are those that are expressed by fractions, that approach most to an unit, though none can ever reach it, for they would then cease to be probabilities, being converted into a certainty, though some approach so near to it, that they are usually taken for it, as the probability that the world will last another year, &c.

'As certainty is expressed by 1, so is *doubt* or an equality of chances by $\frac{1}{2}$. So if in a covered box there are an equal number of black and white balls well mixed, and through a perforation in the box the hand be introduced, that one or other of these balls will be drawn is certain; and as the possibilities are only 2, the chance of drawing a white ball is $\frac{1}{2}$, and the chance of drawing a black ball is also $\frac{1}{2}$; and as those possibilities balance each other, consequently which of them will be drawn is uncertain or *doubtful*.

'*Note*, the word *uncertain* is capable of two significations, for we are uncertain when we doubt, and also when we are totally ignorant of any reason, whether of affirming or denying; for instance, whether the number of grains of sand in a box is odd or even.

'Hence the *probability* of an event consists in the apparent *superiority* of the possibilities, causes, or reasons tending to produce the belief of its existence over those that are adverse to that belief, and consequently it is denoted by a fraction higher than $\frac{1}{2}$, as $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, &c.

'So the *improbability* of an event consists in the apparent *inferiority* of the possibilities, causes or reasons for believing its existence, to those that oppose them, and therefore it is denoted by a fraction lower than $\frac{1}{2}$ as $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{100}$, &c., remembering always, that the denominator of the fraction comprehends all the possibilities, &c. favourable and adverse. And consequently, by subtracting the favourable (which are found in the numerator) you have the adverse.

'☞ In the sequel + denotes *more*, — denotes *less*, × denotes *multiplied*, and = denotes equal, and two or more letters subjoined denote the multiplication of those numbers they stand for into each other.'

An attentive and patient student will derive the greatest advantage from the author's disquisitions on evidence, and particularly from those on the subject of testimony. He will find comprized within a small compass the substance of bulky volumes.

In many respects, the scientific author of this work seems well qualified for the task which he has undertaken; a mind free from prejudice, perfect impartiality, a philosophical turn,

turn, analyzing habits, and a sound judgment, are well known to characterize Mr. Kirwan: but these are not all the requisites in a writer on the present topic. Logic is more connected with metaphysics and language than with physics. We would not be understood to deny, nor in any degree to question, that an intimate acquaintance with the latter is indispensible in him who would do justice to the subject of these volumes: but we think that a person, who has been principally conversant with physical science, has not passed through the best discipline for treating successfully of logic. To excell in this department, a writer ought to be familiar with the niceties of language; not only to know the force of terms, but to be acquainted with their meaning in its nicest shades; to select not merely those terms which are appropriate, but those which are the most happy; and if he be deficient in these respects, he will not only fail in his style, but will err in his science. Those who have dwelt with delight on the pages of the Port-royal logic, and who have duly appreciated the felicity of the terms, the precision and neatness of the language, and the matchless clearness of the statements in that work, will feel convinced that much is wanting to render the present treatise perfect.

ART. XIII. *The History and Antiquities of the Church and City of Lichfield:* containing its ancient and present State, civil and ecclesiastical; collected from various public Records, and other authentic Evidences. By the Rev. Thos. Harwood, F.S.A., late of University College, Oxford. 4to. pp. 574. and 6 Plates. 1l. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WE always encourage and favour works of this nature on account of their utility, and treat them as privileged undertakings. They fill up the chasms in our topography, are repositories of antient usages and traditions, and record events and transactions which would otherwise be lost to history. Besides rendering this public service, they gratify those who are connected with the respective places of which they treat, and prove very convenient to such persons as become temporary residents in those towns or districts. — If compilations of this sort admit not several of the excellencies of authorship, it must be granted that, in order to succeed in them, the writer must possess taste, judgment, industry, and a large portion of that knowlege which constitutes the antiquary.

In his preface, Mr. Harwood states that in the volume before us,

'He presents to the public whatever information he has been able to collect relating to the ancient and present state of the Church and City of Lichfield.

'An Account of the fine Cathedral, of the ravages it sustained during the civil war in the seventeenth century, and of the restoration to its present state of elegance; a Description of the public Institutions, Churches, Hospitals, Schools, Charitable Donations, and Population; and Memorials of remarkable Persons, are the principal objects of this History. It is also intended to furnish such materials for reference as abound in similar and more copious works, that it may become an useful Appendage to the Topography of the Country.

'By the obliging permission of the Corporation, the Author has been enabled to extract from the public records in their possession, which escaped the devastation of the civil war, much curious information concerning the Guild; and from other authentic documents, which the kindness of his friends supplied, he has selected many interesting particulars relating to the Price of Provisions, the Rent of Land, and to various local Customs and Events. The original MSS. of the indefatigable Elias Ashmole, which are deposited in his Museum, at Oxford, have afforded much important matter, not to be found among other records; and to the liberal use of the papers collected from the Episcopal Registers by the late Rev. Theophilus Buckeridge, Master of St. John's Hospital, he is indebted for an ample Account of that Institution.'

The work itself commences with a geographical and political description of the place which is the subject of it:

'The city of Lichfield is a county of itself, bounded on every side by that part of the county of Stafford which lies within the hundred of Offlow North; and is seated at the distance of 119 miles N. W. of London: in longitude 1. 44. W. and in latitude 52. 54. N.

'Lichfield was not known before the time of the Saxons; being called in that language *Licetfeld*; from the Saxon words *lece, lec, Lich* or *Lace*, now *Lake*, from its marshy situation. It is called *Licidfield* by Bede; *Lichfeld*, by Ingulphus and Huntingdon; *Licethfield*, by Simon Dunelm; *Lichesfelde*, by Bromton; *Lichesfeld*, by Gervas; and *Lychefeld*, by Knighton; that is, says Gibson, *ut nonnullis visum, cadaverum corpus* (field of dead bodies), *etsi alii malunt interpretare, Campum irriguum, ab aqua qua in duas partes urbs divisa est; a* Sax. *leccian, irrigare. Hodie, Lichfeld in agro Staffordiensi.* The Memorial of the Church of Lichfield says it derived its name of *Liches* from war.'

In this and in a subsequent part of the volume, we have short biographical notices of the respective prelates who presided over this see, from Dwina who was appointed its first Bishop by Oswy King of Northumberland, on his conquest of Mercia, to its present diocesan. Among its early prelates, it boasts of St. Chad, Cedda, or Ceadda:

'He

'He succeeded to the episcopal seat in this place in 669. He first retired to Lichfield for the purpose of religious solitude, where he led, (as legend tell us,) an eremetical life, in a cell, by the side of a spring, near the place upon which the church of his name now stands, and supported himself upon the milk of a doe. Here, attended by Ovin, and a few other pious men, he was accustomed to preach and pray. The spot thus chosen by St. Chad for his habitation was well adapted to inspire sentiments of devotion. It was in the midst of a wood, and a little river ran by the side of it. The church was small, according to the age in which it was erected; and here St. Chad was buried.'

'During the episcopacy of Winfrid, who was the successor of St. Chad, and about 674, or 680, this see, which contained all Mercia or Mid-England, was, by Theodore, Archbishop of Canterbury, at a council held at Hatfield, divided into five bishoprics, Chester, Worcester, Litchfield, Leicester, and Hereford; or, according to others, Leicester, Worcester, Lichfield, Sidnacester, and Dorchester. Winfrid, disapproving of this diminution of his authority, was deprived of his episcopal functions for contumacy. In the time of Witta, who succeeded to this see in 737, it was again curtailed.'

Lichfield enjoyed for a short time the dignity of being a metropolitian see:

'Although the primacy was, by the papal authority, from time to time confirmed, and established in the church of Canterbury, yet it was not without meeting with strong opposition. An attempt against the dignity of that see was made by Offa, King of the Mercians, about the year 790, who contracted the limits of the Archbishop's province, by procuring a pall from Pope Adrian, for Adulph, Bishop of Litchfield, and with it also the title of Archbishop. He obtained likewise a decree, that the four Bishops of the kingdom of Mercia, and two Bishops of East Anglia, which were the dioceses of Worcester, Leicester, Sidnacester, Hereford, Helmham, and Dunwich, should become suffragans, and be subject to the new metropolitan. This accession of honour to the see of Lichfield, Lambert, then Archbishop of Canterbury, was not able to oppose; though his successor, Archbishop Athelard, after the death of King Offa, soon regained his whole jurisdiction; and the new Pope, Leo, pronounced all that Offa had done, null and void.'

In 1067, Peter its Bishop removed the episcopal seat to Chester; and it was not restored to Lichfield till the year 1128, when Roger de Clinton succeeded to the see. This bishop 'took down the ancient Mercian cathedral, and rebuilt it. Of the old Saxon order of architecture, there is no trace in the present edifice. He is said to have appointed the first canons in this church, and to have increased the number of prebendaries, to have fortified the castle, to have made a rampart round the village, and to have enrolled and mustered the soldiers.'

We

We have the following account of another great benefactor of this church:

'In 1296, Walter de Langton succeeded to this see. He enjoyed at different times the highest offices of the State, and was highly favoured by Edward the First; but felt the resentment of the Prince, who meanly revenged on him a short imprisonment he had suffered in the time of his father, for riotously destroying his deer. After a confinement of above two years, Langton was reinstated in his pastoral duties; and may well be called another founder of this church. He cleaned the ditch around the Close, and surrounded it with a stone wall: he built the cloysters, and expended two thousand pounds upon a monument for St. Chad. He laid the foundation of St. Mary's chapel, in the cathedral, an edifice of uncommon beauty, in which he was interred; but dying before it was finished, he bequeathed a sufficient sum of money in his will to complete it. He built bridges over the Minster pool, which made an easy communication with the city. He obtained a grant from the Crown to lay an impost, for twenty-one years, upon the inhabitants to pave the streets. He improved the condition of the Vicars Choral, by augmenting their income, and by conferring upon them great privileges. He gave his own palace at the west end of the Close to them, and erected a new episcopal palace at the north-east end. This palace was spacious and splendid; the great hall of which was an hundred feet long, and fifty-six broad, painted with the coronation, marriages, wars, and funeral of his patron, K. Edward I.; and these costly decorations were remaining so late as the time of Erdeswicke, in 1603. He presented to the church large quantities of plate, and many valuable vestments. He erected that noble gate at the west entrance into the Close, a beautiful structure, worthy of its munificent founder; and which, in April 1800, was, with a barbarous taste, pulled down, and the materials applied to lay the foundation of a pile of new buildings, for the residence of necessitous widows of clergymen. He also built another beautiful gate at the south entrance, which was removed about fifty years ago. He built or enlarged the castle at Eccleshall, the manor-houses of Heywood and Shugborough, and the palace in the Strand. "The whole Close," says Leland, "was newly dyked, and walled by Bishop Langton, who made a gate at the west part, and the Bishop's palace at the east end. The glory of the cathedral church is the work at the west end, exceedingly costly and fair. There be three stone pyramids, two in the west end, and one in the middle. The library at the west end was erected by Thomas Heywood, Dean. The Prenbendaries' houses in the Close, built by divers men, be very fair. The Choristers have a goodly house lately built by Bishop Blythe."—

'In 1541, K Henry VIII. erected a bishopric in the city of Chester, and in fixing its boundaries, lessened those of this diocese. He took away from the church the archdeaconry of Chester, united with the prebend of Bolton, and added it to Chester. This archdeacon was heretofore deemed the chief of that order in the diocese of Litchfield;

field; by ancient right, he had a stall in the choir of Litchfield, a vote in the chapter, and a good house in this city.

'In the same year, when the images and shrines of saints were removed from the churches, with all the jewels and valuable ornaments, and conveyed into the King's treasury: at the request of Bishop Lee, the King gave the shrine of St. Chad, for the necessary uses of the cathedral church. But the same Bishop had not sufficient influence to preserve the cathedral church of Coventry, far exceeding the church of Litchfield in magnificence, and sumptuous ornaments, from destruction. He wrote in very importunate terms to Cromwell, to prevent its ruin; "He was moved," he said, "so to do, forasmuch as it was his principal see and bedde church; and that the city of Coventry sued for the same, and so earnestly entreated that the church might stand, and he keep his name, and the city have commodity and ease to their desire; or that by his Lordship's goodness it might be brought to a collegiate church, as Litchfield, and so his poor city have a perpetual comfort of the same.'—

'During the minority of K. Edward VI. and the Protectorate of the Duke of Somerset, Beaudesert, and the spacious forest of Cannock, on which there is now a tree scarcely to be seen, and which was given to this see by K. Edward I. were alienated from it. This extensive manor was the property of the see in the time of the Saxons, and in the 20th of William the Conqueror. Bishop Sampson, by a deed, enrolled in chancery, dated Sept. 29, 38th of Henry VIII. surrendered into the King's hands his manors of Longdon and Heywood, and accepted certain impropriations of inadequate value, as a compensation for them. On the 26th of October, in the same year, the King, by letters patent, granted the same to William Paget, Knight, an ancestor of the present Earl of Uxbridge, and in the possession of whose family it yet remains.'

In stating the injuries done to the cathedral of Lichfield in the course of the civil wars, Mr. Harwood informs us that

'A pair of organs were broken in pieces, which were valued at 200l.; the destruction of the prebendal seats, valued at 600l.; the demolition of the tomb of Lord Paget, an exquisite piece of workmanship, executed in Italy, valued at 700l.; the loss of all the plate, which was seized by Colonel Russel, when he was Governor for the Parliament; the loss of some of the most valuable deeds and papers belonging to the church; and many of the most valuable records belonging to the city, were burnt or carried away from the house of Mr. Noble, the Town Clerk, who resided in the Close; besides the injury done to the walls of this noble edifice, reduced almost to a state of dilapidation, may be enumerated among other melancholy instances of havock and destruction to which this city was exposed during the civil war. About the beginning of October, 1651, the lead was entirely removed from the roof of the cathedral; and the famous bell, called "Jesus," was knocked in pieces, July 26, 1653. About this bell was inscribed,—

"I am the bell of Jesus, and Edward is our King,
Sir Thomas Heywood first caused me to ring."

'It

'It is to be lamented, that there are no documents among the papers belonging to this church by which the date of the present building can be ascertained. This elegant style of architecture, with its three beautiful spires, (whatever may have been the construction of this church in the Saxon and Norman times,) was not introduced into this country before 1200: about which period, the spires of the churches of St. Paul's in London, of Salisbury, and Norwich, were erected. Soon after the introduction of pointed arches, the fashion of adorning the west end of our churches with rows of statues in niches, and canopies over them, prevailed; as in those of Salisbury and Peterborough; and in later times in a more improved taste, at Wells and Lichfield. "The church of Lichfield," says Warton, "was built at least before 1400; for the spire of St. Michael's church in Coventry, finished about 1395, is manifestly a copy of the style of its two spires." "In the time of Bishop Heyworth," says Fuller, (who sat in 1433,) "the Cathedral of Lichfield was in the vertical height thereof, being (though not augmented in the essentials) beautified in the ornamentals thereof. Indeed the west front is a stately fabric, adorned with exquisite imagerie, which I suspect our age is so far from being able to imitate the workmanship, that it understandeth not the history thereof." It is a remarkable circumstance, noticed by Plot, that the church declines not less than twenty-seven degrees, from the points of East and West; the East end declining so much to the North, and the West end to the South. This error was somewhat amended by Bishop Langton, "who founded our Lady's Chapel beyond the choir," 150 years after the supposed erection of the church by Bishop Clinton, which is pointed more eastward; and hence it is that the walls of this chapel stand bevil to those of the church, which may be observed by the most incurious eye.

'The west front was richly adorned with figures, emblematical of sacred history; many of which were defaced during the rebellion. The sculptures round the doors were very elegant; but time and violence have contributed to impair their beauty. The tall spire in the centre was battered down, and the whole of the building reduced almost to a ruin.'

'The Diocese comprehends five hundred and fifty-seven parishes, of which two hundred and fifty are impropriate. It contains the whole county of Stafford, except the parishes of Brome and Clent, which are in the diocese of Worcester; the county of Derby; the larger part of Warwickshire, and nearly the half of Shropshire. It includes the four archdeaconries of Stafford, Coventry, Derby, and Salop. It is valued in the King's books at £559, 18*s.* 2½*d.*; and the tenths of the clergy amount to £590, 16*s.* 11½*d.*'—

'There was an inn of court in London, called "Chester's Inn," or "Strand Inn," belonging to the Middle Temple, in which Occleve the poet, in the reign of K. Henry V. is said to have studied the law. It was built on ground belonging to the bishops of this diocese, who were often called bishops of Chester. Roger de Molend, by his deed dated in 1257, gave and confirmed a parcel of land and buildings, lying in the parish of St. Mary le Strand without London,

towards Wesminster, and the same to hold by the yearly rent of 3*s.* at Easter." He purchased it for 20 marks of silver.

'Chestre's Inn is frequently confounded with the house of the bishops of Chester, which stood near the same spot, and was sometimes so named; but Stowe says, the latter was most commonly called "Litchfield and Coventrees Inne, or London Lodgings," and was first built by Bishop Langton.'

Property to the amount of 29,180l. 6s. 9d. belonging to this see, was alienated during the common-wealth.

Under Queen Mary, Bayne the Bishop of this diocese adjudged two persons to be guilty of heresy; and they were committed to the secular power, and suffered death in the flames at Coventry on the 25th of September 1555. The city of Lichfield has since been disgraced by a similar horrid instance of persecution, under a protestant Prince:

'In 1611, 9 James I. Edward Wightman, of Burton-upon-Trent, was tried in the Consistory court of Lichfield, upon sixteen charges of heresy, and condemned. An account of the charges, with the writ for his execution, under the Great Seal of England, to the Sheriff of this city, for his execution, was published in a curious tract, intituled, "Truth brought to Light, and discovered by Time, or a Discourse and historical Narrative of the first xiiij yeares of King James Reign," 1651. The determination of this cause of heresy against Edward Wightman was, "concerning the wicked heresies of the Ebionites, Corinthians, Valentinians, Arrians, Macedonians, of Simon Magus, of Manes, Manichees, of Photinus, and Anabaptists, and of other heretical, execrable, and unheard-of opinions;" in which he maintained "the said most perilous and dangerous opinions," as appeared by his own confession, and from a book written and subscribed by him. For which he was, "by divine sentence, declared by the said Reverend Father, the Bishop of Coventry and Lichfield, with the advice and consent of learned divines, and others learned in the laws assisting him in judgment, justly adjudged, pronounced and declared, so be an obstinate and incorrigible heretick, and was left by them under the sentence of the great excommunication," and to be punished by the secular power as a heretick. The King's writ to the Sheriff of Lichfield, for his execution, was dated the 9th of March, 1611, at Westminster; by which he was commanded, "in aliquo loco publico et aperto infra civitatem prædict' ex causa præmissa coram populo publicè igni committi, et ipsum Edwardum Wightman in eodem igne realiter comburi;" to be burnt in some public place within the city of Lichfield; which barbarous sentence was soon afterwards executed.'

It would appear that in Litchfield the church has not had reason to complain of numerous separatists; and in 1743 the Bailiffs and Justices certified that "there was no Papist (save only two or three women) or Nonjuror in the city; neither have we among us any Quaker, or above two Dissenters from the

the established church of England, under any denomination whatever."

Among the persons of eminence to whom Litchfield boasts of having given birth, she reckons the celebrated antiquary Elias Ashmole, Bishops Smallridge and Newton, and that incomparable moralist and giant in literature, Dr. Samuel Johnson.

This work is on the whole well executed: but, in our opinion, some artificial divisions of its matter, and considerable pruning, would not have subtracted from its value.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1809.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 14. *Memoirs of Josias Rogers, Esq.* Commander of His Majesty's Ship Quebec. By the late Wm. Gilpin, M. A. Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre in New Forest. Published by his Trustees for the Benefit of his School at Boldre. 8vo. pp. 184. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

Capt. Rogers having been Mr. Gilpin's parishioner, and well known to him both in his private and his professional character, Mr. G. deemed it a duty to avail himself of various documents which fell into his hands, by paying a just tribute to departed worth in the record of a meritorious life. He accordingly composed the memoirs before us, which form a very interesting historical tract, entertaining even to the general reader, and highly honourable to the lamented subject of them; who was carried off by the yellow fever, at Grenada, 24th April 1795, aged only forty. To the most amiable personal qualities, he added the highest professional merits; and the events of his life display such evidences of his zeal, his activity, his judgment, his coolness, his intrepidity, and his knowlege, as render him an object well worthy of the contemplation and imitation of all young heroes of the ocean. The energy of his mind, indeed, and the versatility of his talents, which enabled him to act on shore as a soldier with as much honour and effect as at sea in his more immediate sphere, assimilate his character very much with that of the illustrious NELSON. — He has left one brother, Capt. Thomas Rogers, also of the Royal Navy; having had the mortification of losing another brother, and a nephew, out of his own ship, by fever, while in the fatal West Indies.

NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 15. *A Narrative of the Proceedings on board His Majesty's Ship Theseus, 74. Capt. Edw. Hawker,* bearing the Flag of James Richard Dacres, Esq. Rear Admiral of the Red, from the 4th to the 15th of September 1804, being an Account of the Hurricane which that Ship encountered in the Western Atlantic Ocean, in Company

Company with His Majesty's Ship Hercule, 74. Capt. Richard Dunn. With Engravings, by Capt. Burt, R. N. Folio. 15s. Orme. 1809.

We cannot conceal the disappointment and the disapprobation which this publication has produced in our minds. The narrative is a meagre sort of log-book journal, which (we speak correctly) could be entirely comprized in a page and a half of our Review; and the plates, four in number, might surely be sold separately at 1s. each; yet the price of the whole is *fifteen shillings*. Why should a folio page, measuring 12 inches by ten, be allotted to receive an engraving of only five inches by three and a half?

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 16. *An Improvement in the Mode of administering the Vapour-Bath*, and in the Apparatus connected with it; with Plans of fixed and portable Baths for Hospitals and private Houses, and some practical Suggestions on the Efficacy of Vapour, in Application to various Diseases of the Human Frame, and as may be beneficial to the Veterinary Branch of Medicine. The whole illustrated by eleven Plates. 4to. 10s. 6d. Booth. 1809.

This pamphlet gives an account of a mechanical improvement on the method of applying vapour to the human body for the cure of different diseases. It proceeds from the pen of the Hon. Basil Cochrane; who, as he informs us, was led to turn his thoughts to the subject, in consequence of being himself a sufferer from some complaints, which he conceived would be benefited by this application. The event justified his expectations; and he was consequently induced to pay farther attention to the different circumstances which might render the employment of the vapour-bath as commodious and as efficacious as possible.

Mr. Cochrane very properly disclaims all pretensions to medical science; and for a knowlege of the use of vapour, as an agent in the cure of disease, he refers to those writers who have treated the subject professionally: he only proposes to point out improvements in the construction and management of the apparatus. Several plates are annexed to the pamphlet, which minutely explain all the contrivances, and which would enable any person who was so disposed to put them into practice. We transcribe the testimonial to the excellence of Mr. Cochrane's apparatus, which is signed by 77 names, most of them well known medical characters in the metropolis; and which will render it unnecessary for us to give any opinion on the subject:

'We have examined the improved models as well as the baths erected by the Hon. Mr. Cochrane; and we have no hesitation in declaring, that they are constructed with much ingenuity and simplicity, and that they possess, within a small compass, a degree of efficiency, accuracy, and variety of application and power, beyond any thing of this nature which we have witnessed. We are, therefore, of opinion, that they would prove an admirable addition to all Naval and Military Hospital Establishments. There are few diseases in which, under the superintending care of the judicious medical man, they may not,

not, at one stage or another, be useful; and in the prevention of disease, as well as during the periods of convalescence, they will also produce effects highly beneficial.'

*** This article was intended for the last Review, and a reference was made to it at p. 283: but it was accidentally omitted by the Printer.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *Poems* (*never before published*) by the Rev. Wm. Lisle Bowles. Cr. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

The name of Mr. Bowles will render this volume acceptable to many whose approbation reflects honor; and we have not perused it without experiencing esteem for the feeling and poetic mind by which it has been dictated. Yet, though we find in these poems beautiful imagery, sensibility, and poetic fancy, they do not entirely satisfy either the heart or the imagination. Mr. Bowles possesses some of the fire of genius, but he often employs it as an *ignis fatuus* to dance and dazzle; or, to change the metaphor, he is like a Hawk attempting the regions whither the Eagle soars; he rises beyond the sight of the twittering crew, but he never entirely fulfils the expectations which he is capable of exciting. This is more the case in the present volume than it was in his Sonnets; and the reason is that in the Sonnets he was obliged to give his desultory thoughts and images a greater degree of condensation. For want of this restraint, though many passages in his longer poems are touching, few comparatively are forcible, some lines are very weak, and the whole is very unequal in merit. Perhaps Mr. Bowles may consider this observation as a compliment, and say with Martial;

"*Æqualis liber est, Cretice, qui malus est.*"

At any rate, if Expectation be the happiest feeling of Mankind, the reader of Mr. Bowles's Poems will be truly felicitous; and like the Countryman who dug a field all over in hopes of finding a hidden treasure, though he may not meet in one spot with the collected gems of ages, he will rejoice as he goes along, and find at the end of his task that he is repaid for it by the advantage and pleasure which its performance has procured him.

Art. 18. *Camilla de Florian*, and other Poems. By an Officer's Wife. Cr. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Dick. 1809.

We learn that these poems are published in the hope that their profits may administer to the comforts of a sick husband; and the motive and the compositions are equally honourable to the fair writer. Her expressions are sometimes obscure, but her ideas are poetical, and her mind appears to be at once well informed and enthusiastic. In her versification of some of Ossian's poems, she has preserved much of the spirit and wildness of the original, in defiance of the trammels of rhyme and measure: though the admirers of Ossian may think that he is still more sublime in his own excentric prose, and that *Ossian versified* is like one of his Hebridean descendants stripped of his national plaid, and attired in an English coat and breeches; while

while those who are less partial to his rhapsodies will perhaps compare him in his present dress to a madman in a strait waistcoat.

Mrs. Fraser (which is the name subscribed to the dedication) has been happy in several of her imitations from the Spanish; and in the Poem of 'The Two Nuns,' taken from the German, she has given with great effect the gloomy wildness of the German ghost-stories.

So far we have been much pleased with her poems, and we are happy in expressing our satisfaction:—but, while *just praise*, from whatever quarter it proceeds, may be compared to the sun which warms and invigorates, *flattery*, like a *coup de soleil*, enervates while it inflames the mind.—In 'Camilla de Florian,' which appears to be an original composition, the versification is feeble, and the termination unsatisfactory. Several of the lines are too long, and some of them cannot be read without an unprecedented alteration in the pronunciation of the words. We also found, in many passages, mistakes of *number*; which are so palpable that they may perhaps be attributed to the ignorance of the printer, though they are not noticed among the Errata.

Art. 19. *The Farm House*, a Tale; with amatory, pastoral, elegiac, and miscellaneous Poems, Sonnets, &c. By James Murray Lacey. Crown 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Co. 1809.

This sounding title page excites a hope of variety, which is not gratified by the limited number of bells on which the changes are rung. The author's "Sonnets to his Mistress' Eyebrow" are very numerous; we have two or three on *Tears*, Snow-drops, and Primroses; several, in course, on Love and Friendship; and others on Morning, Evening, Noon, and Night. They are not without pretensions to the epithet of *pretty*, but they are all so much alike that, with a few changes of names, the title of each might be reversed, with very little injury to the sense of the poem. Mr. Lacey says that they were written merely for his own pleasure: but it is for the amusement of his readers that he who intends to publish ought to write; and the more he adverts to this consideration in the moment of composition, the greater will be his triumph at the period of publication.

Art. 20. *Rudigar the Dane*, a legendary Tale. By Eaglesfield Smith, Esq. Crown 8vo. 2s. Boards. Johnson. 1809.

A horrible story, indeed! involving murder, incest, and suicide. To those who deal and delight in wounds, and blood, and death, and dark tales of unimaginable horror, we leave this production, with the full persuasion of their making an ample feast. Repetition is not only the soul of poetry, but the flesh and blood of ballad-writing; and therefore we have here the following stanza, slightly altered, over and over again:

'O list ye rovers of the North
That stem the boisterous wave,—
O listen to a minstrel's song,
Lord Rudigar the brave!'

Any Lord 'Rudigar the Dane' may listen, if he pleases, since we are at strife with him and his nation, but we hope that our friends will be better employed.

Art. 21. *The Fantoccini*; or the Great Public Puppet-Show, as exhibited by Signior Tintaraboloso; described in a Poetical Epistle from Griffith Llewellyn to his Cousin, Rice ap Shinkins, with illustrative Notes, historical and critical. By the Curate of Aberistwith. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Maxwell and Co. 1809.

From the introduction and the commencement of this piece, we expected something similar in humour to Simkin's letters to his dear brother in Wales: but we soon found that the writer was unable to *keep up the ball*, and forgot his plan of exhibiting living characters under classic names. What have *the Good Man* and *the Good Woman* to do with Augustus, Alcibiades, and Mark Anthony? or where is the propriety of bringing in the Union, or the marriage of John Bull with Madam Erin, after a description of a modern fine Lady? Never were puppets so badly assorted; and the general effect is tame and flat in the extreme. '*The fable*,' we are told in the title, '*has a moral*:' but in a great portion of these verses we can perceive no fable to which any moral can be attached, and only downright plain sailing in very plain verse. If our readers can discern anything in the following representation of *the Good Man*, that is calculated for the Great Public Puppet-Show, they have more penetration than we can claim:

'He wav'd his wand, and at his call,
We were surpris'd to view,
A cobler sitting in his stall,
And mending an old shoe.

'He stitch'd, and sung, like larks in June,
That make the welkin ring,
And beat his lapstone to the tune,
While thus we heard him sing:

"The rich, and great, I envy not,
Their titles, or their toys,
For sweet content hath bless'd my cot
With calmer, surer joys.

"My wife, tho' but an homely dame,
Is like the honey'd bee;
My girls are growing up the same,
The boys are all like me.

"We are not plagu'd with useless wealth,
Nor have we much to spare,
Yet we have competence, and health,
And wholesome daily fare.

"I work for all the village round,
And labour with good will,
If once a week I earn a pound,
And shoes want mending still.

"On

"On Sunday, in our best array,
With pious folk we join,
And sometimes bring with us away,
A neighbour poor, to dine.

"I ponder not on future ills,
Which never may come nigh,
Content, if I can pay my bills,
And lay a little by.

"Tho' we have neither gold, nor lands,
We have no cause to rue,
While wife, and I, have each two hands,
And there is work to do."

Who would ever think of meeting with a plain country-cobler in the *Great Public Puppet-Show?*

Art. 22. *The Battle of the Blocks*, an heroic Poem, in three Cantos. By the Author of the Pantoecini. 8vo. 1s. Maxwell and Co.

The state-duellists, who are the *Blocks* in this mock epic, are compared to 'reeling ninepins' which 'knock each other down.' It is the aim of the poet to hold the principals in this unseemly conflict up to public scorn and derision; and if laughing at ministerial cabals and blunders would palliate the miseries which they occasion, we should recommend the productions of the satiric muse for sale in every market town of the empire: but of late *Folly in high places* has become too outrageous, to be affected and restrained by wit and rhyme. Our enemies may laugh, but we ought to weep.

This poet's indignation, however, is too feeble to express the public feeling; and even when he *does his best*, he is too languid for the occasion. His description of the failure of the Scheldt expedition (the cause of the quarrel between Mr. *Canting* and Lord *Castaway*) is not the worst part of the poem: but even this has not much merit:

'Thus baffled, wasted, their retreat review;
Like pallid spectres, drench'd with midnight dew!
Not twenty ships, nor towns, nor bulwark'd holds
They take—but twenty thousand colds!
With fevers burnt, or shivering agues chill'd,
Diseases, not their foes, the warriours kill'd.
Ah, mad exploit! to send the young, the brave,
To seek an hospital, or find a grave.
Unlaurell'd Gen'rals sneak away to Court,
And Crowded Transports bring the sick to port;
The sad disgrace awakes the public mind,
And gathering murmurs float on every wind;
The beggar'd country mourns the bitter cost
Of credit, men, and treasure madly lost.'

The false quantities of Aristides and Alcibiades must not be tolerated.

Art. 23. *Poems on various Subjects*, by Henry Richard Wood, Esq. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Baldwins, &c. 1809.

We are sometimes intreated for indulgence on account of the youth of an author, and sometimes invited to compassionate his age and infirmities; and while one silences us by pleading that he is still poorer in purse than in genius, another alleges so respectable a motive for publication, that we can only wish the general indulgence to keep pace with his expectations. Perhaps scarcely any work can be found which will not *admit* an apology, but we sigh for such as require none.

In the present instance, Mr. Wood offers with much diffidence his 'youth' and 'inexperience' as palliations for the defects of his poems; and though modesty unaccompanied by merit is but a negative virtue, which silence best exemplifies, yet, when we find any beauties in a work, the author's modesty induces us to hope for his future improvement. Mr. Wood's poetry is harmonious, and his language is elegant: but his writings display a melancholy and morbid sensibility, which has been nurtured by the study of Petrarch and the minor Italian poets.—We are almost tired of sentimental and reasoning *Lilies*: but his lines on Fountain's Abbey are pleasing; the idea of the Anacreontic at the end of the book is good; and the fifth Sonnet, on the affection with which we look back to our past years, is remarkably well conceived and expressed. We shall transcribe it:

'SONNET V.

'Why do those years which long, long since have pass'd,
More joyous than the present hours appear?
Say, were they chill'd by no unkindly blast,
Sad with no sigh, polluted with no tear?
Yes! ere they fled, they felt Misfortune's storms,
And like the present, had their sorrows too.
'Tis Fancy, fruitful in her airy forms,
That decks them in a garb they never knew:
Fancy, unfettered by that clay-link'd chain,
Which ever mingling with our present joys,
The purest charm of intellect destroys:
Thus foolish man seeks happiness in vain,
Who striving the Reality to find,
Knows but its form by traces left behind.'

Art. 24. *Modern Proselytism*, a poetical Sketch. 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

This sketch is so very faint, that the purpose of the artist is scarcely intelligible. He courts the Muse to help him to be satirical, but he addresses his prayers *surdis auribus*.

Art. 25. *A solemn, sentimental, and reprobating Epistle to Mrs. Clarke.* By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Walker.

Art. 26. *A Second Epistle to Mrs. Clarke.* By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Walker.

Here is our friend P. P. *about Mrs. Clarke's house*; and never was so young a *septuagenaire!* If we may judge from the vigor and sportiveness of his muse, he has no furrows and wrinkles. The field for sport, which the

the curious exhibition in the last session of parliament opened to the satiric muse, is exactly adapted to P. P.'s taste; and the *dramatis personæ* of the *Duke and Darling* comedy pass in ludicrous review before this modern Momus. He has given to the exhibition that effect which his comic colouring is known to produce; and we owe to him, as on former occasions, the praise of having the power of fun, as well as the power of song. Does he, in the following prophecy, founded on the known fickleness of public opinion, seriously intend for once in his life to speak *glad-tidings* to the Court? No, the rogue is sly as usual; all *ironing*, we fear:—

'Yes, shall the HERO to his rank return,
While HATE shall foam in vain, and ENVY burn;
And spite of thy poor fabricated story,
Reblaze the sun of military glory!
'Tis but a passing cloud obscures his ray;
At most the darkness of a short-liv'd day:
The BIRD OF JOVE, by an unlucky ball,
May lose some feathers of his wings, and fall;
Awhile may feed on snails, and hop the ground,
Till time renews his plumes, and cures his wound;
Then with new vigour imp'd, he mounts the wind,
And leaves the groveling tribes of earth behind;
Sublime he soars, scarce conscious of the blow,
And darts contempt upon the world below.
He comes, the HERO comes, and in his might
And cloath'd with terror, puts his foes to flight.
Thus, once I saw a country BULL, at ring,
Break, in his rage, the rope with sudden spring;
Coblers, and Butchers, Taylors fall or fly,
While hats, caps, wigs, and aprons mount the sky;
Sport of the winds o'er trees and chimnies borne,
That prov'd the prowess of his head and horn!
ENCHANTRESS, yes, for oracles I tell,
The youth shall rise and mock thy ev'ry spell,
Stamp with eternal infamy thy name,
Mock thy dark wiles, and cover thee with shame.
Then heed the ticklish humours of the times,
Tho' vengeance loiter, it may catch thy *crimes*.
In spite of those two fascinating eyes,
The youth, in awful majesty, may rise;
Lift his bold arm, that e'en the thunder dreads,
And tear, perhaps, thy tender form to shreds:
Thus have I seen, with moralizing look,
Cabbage and turnip-tops obstruct a brook;
By calm degrees, up swells the chrystal flood,
Superior rising, not to be withstood;
It bursts the boundary, with furious sweep,
And whelming drowns the garbage in the DEEP.'

As it is no unusual event, in these enlightened and *evangelical* days for *demireps*, who are on the decline of trade, to turn *devotees*, P. P.

addresses to his *Fair-Sinner*-correspondent 'a few rhimes,' by way of 'comment on the times,' in which 'the regenerated rogues of GRACE' obtain a full share of ridicule. The saying ascribed to Whitfield, "Come to Christ the dirtier the better," probably helped the poet to the outlines of his picture:

> 'The MAN whose soul the blacker vices taint,
> Now, *for Heav'ns glory*, makes a *d—'d* good SAINT!
> Thus, heads of WHITINGS, *grac'd* with modest light,
> *Stink first*, and then *illuminate* the night.'

Whether he soars or sinks, (he seldom does the latter,) P. P. is always himself, and scorns to be indebted to any fund but his own.

Art. 27. *Marmion travestied*; a Tale of modern Times. By Peter Pry, Esq. 8vo. pp. 277. 9s. Boards. Tegg. 1809.

According to the popular notion of a *travesty*, which commonly signifies the degradation of a dignified style by a caricature-copy, we should doubt whether the poem of Marmion be susceptible of that humiliating process, since it is scarcely possible for any burlesque to *outdo* the doggrel character which prevails through the larger proportion of its narrative. *Qui procumbit humi, non habet unde cadat.* Instead, however, of clothing the same subject in a different garb, after the example of *Scarron* and *Cotton*, the present author, appropriating the same language to a different subject, has rehearsed his 'Tale of modern Times' in the same metre, and, for aught that we know, in the same number of stanzas, lines, and words, which were employed in Mr. Scott's hobbling heroics. That gentleman's introductions to the several cantos are also imitated, but with less exactness. The first of them, in which the border-minstrel judged it necessary to apologize to the son of the right honourable George Rose, for bestowing a few ill-turned phrases of niggardly panegyric on the late Mr. Fox, is here addressed to Sir Francis Burdett, and the rest to other distinguished political characters; except the last, which is assigned to Lord Ellenborough, and turns on the too celebrated suit, Wright *v.* Wardle. These introductions are without point, and are actually inferior to the originals. Peter Pry's story is a kind of patchwork, collected from various circumstances that appeared on the late investigation before the House of Commons, in the recent trial in the Court of King's Bench, and in the newspapers, respecting the suppressed *Memoirs:* a considerable part is however supplied by the poet's imagination. It is rather tedious, on the whole, though not without occasional gleams of pleasantry. We quote the parody on a striking passage in the original; that in which Mr. Scott, after a burst of genuine poetry, indulges his antiquarian readers with a *fac simile* of Sybil Gray's imaginary black-letter epitaph:

> 'O, Woman! in the hour of strife,
> The plague, the torment of our life,
> And variable as the shade,
> By the light quivering aspen made;
> Whenever gifts there are enow
> A condescending creature thou!

Scarce

Scarce were the copies told, when she
The quick destruction did decree,
With all their rich contents.
Forgot were fame and rage, I think,
She only hears the guineas chink,
Sees but the settlements.—
She begg'd they'd burn them in the Square*,
But heav'd a sigh as thus she spoke;
Then dragging them to Salisbury Square*;
They set them blazing here and there,
Which fill'd the *Barley-Mow* with smoke.
Now run the mob!—they see the blaze,
And marvel much, I ween;
While at the bon-fire thus they gaze,
A title page is seen,—
Which in large letters held to view,
"MEMOIRS OF MRS. M. A. CLARK;
INCLUDING FACTS AS STRANGE AS TRUE,
AND ANECDOTES OF MANY A SPARK."
And thus these volumes were destroy'd;
Volumes of smoke they sent abroad,
While every one the agents blames—
It should have publish'd been, they said,
And if condemn'd by those who read,
Then be committed to the flames.'

The ingenuity which is displayed in adapting the style of Lord Marmion to the story of Pr—nce Fr—d—c might, we think, have been exerted on better objects.

EDUCATION.

Art. 28. *A short Practical Grammar of the English Language, for* the Use of Young Persons. By Edward Oliver, D.D. Rector of Swanscomb in Kent. 12mo. pp. 178. 2s. 6d. Boards. Faulder.

The reasons assigned by Dr. Oliver, for making an addition to the number of English Grammers that are already before the public, are that most of them are so incumbered with critical and learned remarks, as to be very unfit for simply teaching the rudiments of the language; and that others are either deficient or incorrect. His object therefore is to supply an elementary treatise, which shall contain a short and plain account of the several sorts of words, and their respective variations; together with a system of the rules of construction, sufficient for the practice of parsing. We think that the want of a new Grammar is rather problematical; yet, as a practical work for the use of schools, the compilement before us is well executed. The rules are given in concise and perspicuous language; and, although they are fewer than in many works of the kind, they are adequate to most purposes.

* This repetition, instead of rhyme, is according to the original, p. 363.'

POLITICS.

Art. 29. *Demonstration;* or Financial Remarks: with occasional Observations on political Occurrences. By Francis Perceval Eliot, Esq. 8vo. pp. 128. 6s. Boards. Cawthorn.

This tract opens with rules for calculating the operations of the sinking fund in the reduction of loans; and after having exemplified these by tables, Mr. Eliot states his practical conclusions, which are too numerous and too diffusely expressed to admit of compression within our limits. One of his rules, namely, funding in the 5 per cent. stock instead of the three per cents., he communicated to Lord Grenville before the loan of 1807; and it would, he thinks, have been adopted, had not the opposition of the monied interest been apprehended. Another of Mr. E.'s rules is to regulate the sum set apart for the sinking fund at every new loan, by one sixtieth of the capital *borrowed*, instead of one hundredth of the capital *created*; a plan which 'gives the power without enforcing the putting of it in execution.' He next adverts to Lord Henry Petty's well known scheme of mortgaging the war-taxes, and considers that, during a period of five years, it would be attended with advantage, but that, on the expiration of that term, recurrence should be had to a different plan.—The appendix contains a variety of useful tables: but we cannot help remarking that the political remarks hazarded by Mr. Eliot betray a portion of haste and invective, which ill accord with the sober-minded character of a calculator.

Art. 30. *The Speech of James Stephen, Esq.* in the Debate in the House of Commons, 6th March 1809, on Mr. Whitbread's Motion relative to the late Overtures of the American Government: with Supplementary Remarks on the recent Orders in Council. 8vo. pp. 126. 4s. Butterworth.

Mr. Stephen informs the public that his object, in printing this speech, was to correct the misrepresentations which are current in regard to the complicated question of the Orders in Council. We shall concisely state the principal topics on which he dilates. Bonaparte's decree for the blockade of the British Isles (as he had the folly and presumption to term it) was issued in November 1806, but remained unexecuted till the succeeding August. The opponents of our Orders in Council consequently argued that, had we desisted from provocation, it would not have been carried into effect; but Mr. Stephen maintains that it began to be put in a train of execution in Autumn 1807, and was then operating to our exclusion from the continent; 'therefore,' he says, 'it was not our Orders in Council, but the previous decree of the enemy that took away our continental trade.' He argues, in like manner, that the suspension of our American trade was not produced by these Orders, but by the Non-Importation Act previously existing in the United States. In regard to the American embargo imposed two years ago, he takes great pains to shew that it was adopted before the Americans knew of our Orders in Council, and could not consequently be founded on them. The American government having complained of the rejection by England of their overtures of accommodation, he maintains that the spirit of these

overtures

overtures was not equitable; that the tone of America towards France was too low; that, in acknowleging the right of France to impose whatever regulations she chose on foreign vessels when in her ports, America permitted too great latitude to what she termed the right of municipal legislation; and that all which she claimed from France was to abstain from seizing her ships when at sea, and under the protection of the law of nations. A supplement is added for the purpose of explaining the Order of 26th April 1809; which was considered by the public as a repeal of the former Orders, but which Mr. Stephen says was only a partial abrogation, since they remained in force in regard to France, Holland, and part of Italy.

It would be no difficult matter to shew, in opposition to Mr. Stephen, that the Orders in Council have been the source of heavy loss to this country: but the subject has been already discussed in our pages, and it is not our wish to dwell on the mismanagement of our rulers. Mr. Stephen's style gives evident marks of that verbosity which seems inseparable from the habit of frequent speaking, but it possesses, notwithstanding, considerable energy. His manner of treating his adversaries is liberal and gentlemanlike; and his philanthropy is apparent even under an exaggerated impression of the hostility of other governments. Yet much is wanting to render such men proper counsellors of our ministers, in regard to regulations of trade. In the whole of this speech, carefully composed as it is, and occupied with the discussion of our commercial interests, we have not been so fortunate as to perceive a vestige of that knowlege which constitutes the foundation of mercantile policy. The author discovers no acquaintance with the mode in which the capital of an industrious community is distributed and increased; no sense of the degree in which this increase never fails to be retarded when the hand of power interferes; and no consciousness of the great addition that might be made to our political strength, by the adoption of the plain rule of giving free scope to our national industry. Such are the consequences of these subjects being left, as they often are, to men who, from the urgency of other avocations, are unable to apply to these abstruse topics that portion of time and thought which is indispensible to the formation of accurate conclusions; and whose opinions are consequently formed on the narrow basis of local circumstances and particular facts.

ART. 31. *Observations on the National Debt;* with a Plan for discharging it, so as to do complete Justice to the equitable Claims of the Stockholder, and be at the same Time highly advantageous to the Nation at large; with Hints towards a financial Measure, calculated to yield a net Revenue of more than Five Millions annually, without the smallest additional Charge to the Public. 8vo. pp. 90. 8s. Mawman.

Though the author of this tract admits his deficiency in knowlege of finance, he is so strongly impressed with the policy, or rather the necessity of extinguishing the national debt, that he cannot refrain from *going to press* with the happy thought which has struck him. This thought, however, is neither more nor less than that, if we will all pay a sum to government in proportion to our property, so as to make

make an amount equal to the national debt, that burden may be taken off our shoulders. If, for argument's sake, the whole national property be two thousand millions, and the debt four hundred millions, a payment of one fifth of our property to government will supply the means of the desired extinction.—This is telling us nothing more than we knew before: but the author lays his chief stress on the argument that such payment would, in fact, be no loss to the contributors, that the taxes appropriated to the payment of the interest of the debt would be taken off, and that (which is by no means so clear) the remaining four fifths of our property would be improved by the effect of this arrangement, to an equal value with our whole property before the adoption of the plan.

The financial measure, announced in the conclusion of the title, as likely to produce a revenue of five millions, is the erection of a national bank for the purpose of issuing a government paper-currency, to the exclusion of all others; the profit to go wholly into the public treasury.—Much good intention and some information are discernible in this pamphlet, but the author belongs to the numerous class of those who should study before they write.

Art. 32. *The Principles and Conduct of the War*, 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

This politician should have looked into his Bible, and have taken from it for his motto,—"*Against hope believing in hope.*" He sees prosperity in adversity, success in defeat, and security in ruin. Peace is deprecated, and perpetual war recommended; our allies are to be assisted *nolentes volentes*; victories followed by retreats are considered as splendid; acquisitions not worth retaining are termed important; and the enormous expence of vast armaments employed in obtaining them is pronounced to be trifling. Lord Castlereagh, Mr. Canning, and Lord Chatham, are the objects of the author's political idolatry; while the talents of the gallant and judicious Sir John Moore are indirectly attacked, by this silly remark: 'It is much to be deprecated that he did not, upon the dispersion of the Spanish armies, endeavour to secure the permanent maintenance of a British force in the peninsula.' We call this remark *silly*; because the dispersion of the Spanish force rendered this 'permanent maintenance' next to impossible. How was Sir John Moore, without aid from the Spaniards, to resist a French force greatly superior to his own?—The panegyrist of Lord Chatham's Walcheren-expedition cannot hurt the fame of Sir John Moore.

Art. 33. *Short Remarks on the State of Parties at the Close of the Year* 1809. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

A writer, who takes up the pen for the purpose of offering remarks on the state of parties, has generally some party-end to serve. Thus it is with the author of this pamphlet, whose aim is to keep Lord Grenville *out* and Mr. Percival *in*; and being apprehensive that the expedition to the Scheldt, if made an object of inquiry, would shake the present ministry from their seats, he recommends oblivion of the past. Mr. Percival's power is identified with the existence of the Constitution; and we are advised to say nothing of the misfortunes

at Walcheren, lest greater evils befall us! Thus foot-pads, when they have plundered the unfortunate traveller, and run off, threaten that, if he *stirs or makes a noise*, they will return and blow out his brains.

HISTORY.

Art 34. *An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Town of Lancaster:* collected from the best Authorities. 8vo. pp. 118. 5s. Boards. Ostell.

This work is of the same nature as those useful publications which are intitled "Guides," and contains a concise account of Lancaster. The author seems to have been diligent in searching for his materials: but his arrangement is far from being good; and he has given no table of contents nor index to compensate for that deficiency. The work contains two plans of the town, one in its present state, and the other in that of the reign of Elizabeth, copied from Speed; and also a plan of the Castle. The curious visitor will derive some information from the volume which is not otherwise to be gained without much trouble, and will therefore be thankful for the publication, notwithstanding its faults.

Art. 35. *A Sketch of the History and Present State of the Island of Jersey.* By Thomas Lyte, Captain in the late first Garrison Battalion. 8vo. pp. 109. 3s. sewed. Egerton.

It is probable that many readers are but little acquainted with the history of that remote and insulated portion of our dominions, to which this tract relates. To such persons, then, if they laudably desire to remedy this deficiency, Capt. Lyte's sketch will be acceptable and instructive. The account, which is arranged under separate heads, is given with perspicuity; the author's remarks evince discrimination and research; and his manner is pleasing. Although professedly a sketch, yet his book contains several exemplifications with respect to method, that deserve the notice of more extensive topographers.

Art. 36. *The History of Market Harborough in Leicestershire, and its Vicinity.* By W. Harrod, Author of Stamford, Mansfield, &c. 8vo. pp. 102. 6s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

To all persons who are fond of topographical information, such works as this are very desirable; since the particulars of which they may be in search are here to be obtained without much labour of investigation. In the present volume, the reader will meet with a minute account of the town of Harborough; in collecting the documents for which the author seems to have taken considerable pains. Though, however, we feel disposed to give him credit in this respect, we cannot speak in terms equally favourable of his manner. His intention was evidently to render his account as entertaining as the subject would admit, which was certainly commendable: but, in compilements of this nature, entertainment is sufficiently afforded by giving interesting information; and we are seldom pleased with our guide when he becomes a jester. The reason assigned by the author for his manner is, that 'as mere antiquarian matter might to some prove

prove dry, he has frequently departed from the gravity with which such subjects are usually treated.'—'If (as he says) he is panting after fame with the ardour of a poet labouring after immortality,' we are rather apprehensive that, while he continues in the same road his panting will be in vain, whatever may be his exertions.—Several plates are added; most of which, however, have already appeared in Nichols's "History of Leicestershire."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 37. *Essays and Thoughts on various Subjects*, and from various Authors, &c. together with Nine Papers from the Olla Podrida, and Poems; by the Right Reverend George Horne, D D, late Lord Bishop of Norwich. Small 8vo. pp. 307. 5s. Rivingtons.

Greatly are the good people of England indebted to the manufacturers and venders of books, for that supply with which they are, in these times, so copiously and assiduously furnished! Poor Dr. Johnson was divided and dealt out till not a particle of him remained undistributed; and now it seems as if Doctor Horne should participate in a similar honour. It will, however, be acknowleged that the volume before us may prove acceptable and useful. Take, gentle reader, a few specimens:

'When Dr. Andrews became Bishop of Winton, a distant relation, a blacksmith, applied to him to be *made a gentleman*, i. e. to be ordained, and provided with a good benefice. No, said the Bishop, you shall have the best *forge* in the county, but—*every man in his own order and station.*'

'Grove, a Presbyterian, published in 1728, a funeral sermon on the *Fear of Death*. The subject was treated in so masterly a manner, that a person of considerable rank in the learned world declared, that after reading it, he could have laid (*himself*) down and died, with as much readiness and satisfaction, as he had ever done any thing in his life. *Biog. Dict.* art. *Grove*.—The sermon must have been a good one to have wrought such a persuasion: but how the persuasion would have kept its ground, had the person been taken at his word, and ordered to prepare for instant death, is another question.'

'Disputation makes us ready and expert in using the knowledge we have, but sufficeth not for the acquisition of more. It is *exercise*, but not *food*. It is but too much a custom to give ill names to those who differ from us in opinion. Dr. Hammond mentions, as a humourous instance of it, that when a Dutchman's horse does not go as he would have him, he in a great rage calls him an *Arminian*.'

'Sir Peter Lely made it a rule, never to look at a bad picture, having found by experience, that, whenever he did so, his pencil took a tint from it. Apply this to bad books and bad company.'

'Pringle, (Sir John.) He was particularly fond of Bishop Pearce's Commentary and Notes. He was brought up in principles of virtue and piety; he was seduced to deism, but brought back again, by an attentive consideration of the evidence, and settled by discovering that the doctrine of the Trinity made no part of the Scriptures; that the

the mercy of God was not confined to a few, exclusive of others, and that future punishments were not eternal.—See Kippis's account prefixed to his Speeches. This is a way of making matters easy; a man strikes out of the gospel what he does not like, and then is graciously pleased to profess himself a believer of the rest. After this fashion, the religion certainly bids fair to become *universal*. "Thus, says Kippis, he added another name to the catalogue of the *excellent* and *judicious* persons who have *gloried* in being *rational Christians!*"—

Whatever there may be of truth in this remark, Bishop Horne surely evinces a defect of candour, in the manner in which it is here applied.

'A genius, forward, and early ripe, seldom in the end answers expectation. Virgil has observed the same thing of land, which throws forth *corn, shoots*, or stems as it ought to have been rather expressed, too strong at first:

"——*Ah nimium ne sit mihi fertilis illa,*
Neu se prævalidam primis ostendat aristis." Georg. II. 252.

Let not my land so large a promise boast,
Lest the lank ears in length of stem be lost. Dryden, 341.

'He who sacrifices religion to wit, like the people mentioned by Ælian, worships a fly, and offers up an ox to it. Wit without wisdom is salt without meat, and that is but a comfortless dish to set a hungry man down to. Wit employed to disguise and prejudice truth is salt thrown into a man's eyes.'

'Honesty, saith Dr. Rees in his Dictionary, is a plant supposed to be possessed of eminent medical virtues; but it hath not the fortune to be received into the *shops*. The Doctor is perfectly grave, but the words admit of a humorous sense.'

In general, these thoughts or maxims may claim the praise of utility, but some are more common, and some less important, than others; while in one or two instances they have a less liberal cast than we might reasonably have expected from Bishop Horne.

Art. 38. *Select Views of London and its Environs*; containing a Collection of highly-finished Engravings, from original Paintings and Drawings, accompanied by Copious letter-press Descriptions of such Objects in the Metropolis and the surrounding Country as are most remarkable for Antiquity, Architectural Grandeur, or Picturesque Beauty. 2 Vols. Medium Quarto. 5l.—or imperial 4to. with first Impressions, 7l. 10s. Vernor and Hood, and Scott.

Publications of this class have a double attraction, since they gratify the eye while they convey instruction to the mind: but it is a mortification to us that the nature of our work precludes the possibility of affording specimens of their chief merit, viz. the plates. In these cases we can merely excite curiosity by our praise, while the prices of the performances themselves prevent that curiosity from being generally gratified. Many of our readers, perhaps, will not have it in their power to turn over the pages of these interesting volumes:

but those who have the pleasure will applaud the beautiful execution of the engravings, as well as the choice of the subjects on which the pencil of the artist has been employed.

Vol. I. presents views of St. Alban's Abbey-Church, Greenwich Hospital, Windsor, Waltham Abbey, Stepney Church, Westminster Hall, St. Paul's Cathedral, Chingford Church, Eltham Palace, London from the Thames, Crosby Hall, and Christ's Hospital. Vol. II. contains Westminster Abbey (several views), Admiralty and the Horse Guards, Bartholomew the Great, village of Bray, Chelsea College, Eton Do., Royal Exchange, Kentish town, Highgate and Hamstead, Maidenhead bridge, Great Marlow, Mark's Hall, St. Saviour's church Southwark, Sion House, Stoke Pogis church, and the remains of Winchester House, Southwark. Besides the quarto views, several vignettes are interspersed.

With regard to the letter-press, care has been taken to furnish such accounts as will be acceptable to those who wish to be acquainted with the history, antiquities, and sacred architecture of our country. The author seems to have derived his information respecting antient edifices from the best sources, and has carried down the account of them to the present day in a very pleasing manner. To the plate, for instance, representing Sion House, Middlesex, the seat of the Duke of Northumberland, are added sixteen pages of explanatory description, in which we find enumerated the most interesting particulars of the antient monastery of Sion, which stood at some distance from the present house, and an account of the edifice as it is now inhabited.

Art. 39. *Chronological, Biographical, and Miscellaneous Exercises, on a New Plan:* designed for the daily Use of young Ladies. By William Butler, Teacher of Writing, Accounts, and Geography in Ladies' Schools. The Third Edition, greatly enlarged. 12mo. pp. 550. 7s. Boards. Harris.

If to place a mass of valuable information within the reach of young persons, and to render it alluring by a judicious selection, by neat and concise statements, and by an attractive arrangement form claims to commendation, the little volume before us (which has reached a third edition) must be allowed to merit the encouragement which it has obtained. The plan of the work is to connect with the days of the year respectively, in their regular succession, the events and occurrences which distinguish and render them memorable; beginning with the first of January, and ending with the thirty-first of December.—We are pleased also with the attention paid by the author to those characters which are more useful than ostentatious, we mean such as illustrate and dignify the middle walks of life.

Art. 40. *Crosby's Merchant's and Tradesman's Pocket Dictionary,* addressed to Merchants, Manufacturers, and Traders in all the various Branches of commercial Intercourse. By a London Merchant. 12mo. pp. 500. 6s. 6d. Boards. Crosby and Co.

The object of this publication is to explain, in the Dictionary-form, the regulations of trade, the practice of the Customs and Excise, commercial

mercial formulæ, laws of bankruptcy, &c. To dignify it as the work of a London merchant is, we apprehend, one of those expedients which take their origin in the belief that a book will sell better if it proceeds from a high quarter: but, come whence it may, a great portion of matter is here put into a convenient compass, and it seems to be a cheap and useful compilation.

SINGLE SERMONS, *on the Jubilee.*

Art. 41. *A Discourse delivered in St. Philip's Church, Birmingham,* before the Brethren of the United, Loyal, and Constitutional Lodges of the Ancient and Venerable *Order of Druids,* on October 25, 1809. By the Rev. Luke Booker, LL.D. 4to. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Dr. Booker has the grace to make some apology for the medley of subjects in this *salmagundy* sermon: but he would, in our opinion, have more consulted the dignity of the clerical character by declining the service which the *Order of Druids* requested him to perform. How ludicrous for a christian minister to address, in a christian church, lodges of Free Masons who call themselves the *Order of Druids**. To gratify the vanity of these united Lodges, Dr. B. sketches the outlines of antient Druidism, not forgetting the *Mistletoe*; after which, Christianity comes in for a share of his attention, then the Birmingham General Hospital, and last of all our good King; of whom, says the preacher, 'we are not offering any adulatory incense on the shrine of falsehood, when we assert, that no Monarch ever more deserved a people's love.'

Art. 42. *Righteousness the Dignity and Ornament of Old Age,* preached at Pell-Street Meeting-House, Ratcliffe-Highway, October 25, 1809. By Thomas Cloutt. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

As this preacher has quoted from Cicero's *Cato Major,* (though incorrectly,) we are surprized that he did not take the passage which echoes the sentiment of the text: "*Aptissima arma senectutis sunt artes exercitationesque virtutum.*" Having pointedly contrasted the miseries of an impious and vicious old age, with the pleasures reserved for the hoary head that is found in the way of righteousness, Mr. Cloutt, with unaffected loyalty, delineates the personal virtues of our aged Sovereign, and subjoins an ardent prayer that his successors may copy his example. The general exhortations are such as naturally flow from the subject; and to illustrate the importance of the kingly example, he makes the following apposite quotation from Claudian:

——— "*Componitur orbis*
Regis ad exemplum; nec sic inflectere sensus
Humanos edicta valent, quam vita regentis."

* In complimenting this *Order of Druids,* Dr. B. appears to forget the fact that the decoration of our churches with evergreens at Christmas is borrowed from the Jewish feast of Tabernacles, and he declares this custom to be a relict of Druidism!

Art.

Art. 43. *The Jubilee a Source of Religious Improvement*, preached at Worship street, Finsbury Square, October 25, 1809. By John Evans, A.M. &c. 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

This discourse affords an instance of what may be termed *oratorical flying off at a tangent*. Jesus the King of Glory comes in rather irrelevantly, when the occasion and the title of the sermon lead us to suppose that George the Third would be the prominent topic. The life of the author of our religion has no point of comparison with that of any earthly Cæsar; and when he declared that *his Kingdom was not of this world*, he meant to assert that the power which he exercised, and the effects which he aimed at producing, did not interfere with the authority and ends of temporal sovereignties.

Art. 44. Preached at the Parish Church of Chard, October 25, 1809. By the Rev. W. S. Bradley, A.M. vicar of Chard, &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

The kingly and the private virtues of the Sovereign are warmly displayed by this preacher, as a proper theme for national rejoicing and pious gratitude.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are favoured with the obliging communication of the *ci-devant Theophrasticus*: but, as he is himself aware that the circumstances to which it refers have long since been withdrawn from our minds, so we are persuaded that he will not expect from us, at present, any other than this general acknowlegement of his politeness, and of our satisfaction at his finding such particular reason to be convinced of the justice of our criticism.

We shall take notice, in our next number, of the principal work mentioned by Mr. F. of Harlow: but the other is so completely a personal affair, that we cannot feel either inclined or warranted to enter into the discussion.

Ἑλλαδικὸς is informed that we intend to take an early opportunity of reviewing the late Cambridge edition of Æschylus, as far as it has proceeded; and the new metrical arrangement of the choruses of that great Bard, which is shortly expected from the pen of the Rev. Dr. Charles Burney.

*** In the last Review, P. 251. l. 16. for Πτερογλίφος, read Πτερογλύφος; and line 19: for μεδον, read μεσον. P. 266. the price of Article VI. should have been inserted, 7s. 6d. *each Part.*

☞ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published with the Number for January on the 1st of February.

THE APPENDIX TO THE SIXTIETH VOLUME OF THE MONTHLY REVIEW ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Lettres Historiques, Politiques,* &c.; *i. e.* Historical, Political, Philosophical, and Private Letters of Henry St. John, Lord Viscount Bolingbroke, from 1710 to 1736, containing the secret Negotiations of the Peace of Utrecht, and many Details connected with History, Philosophy, Literature, &c. With Explanations and Notes on the Subjects and the Persons mentioned by Bolingbroke. Preceded by an Historical Essay on his Life, a Catalogue *raisonné* of his Works, a Selection of his *Thoughts*, and a Fac-simile of his Hand-writing. Printed in Part from Originals in the Hand of that Illustrious Englishman. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1808. Imported by De Boffe, and by Dulau. Price 1l. 16s. sewed.

THE literary fame of Lord Bolingbroke has, we think, long since attained its acmè among his countrymen, and appears for several years past to have been somewhat on the decline. Occasional reference, indeed, may and always will be made to his official letters, from which some important facts in our history must derive elucidation; and his papers in the *Craftsman* will often be consulted, as rich storehouses of political invective, and armories for all the weapons that are employed in party-warfare. His philosophical works, also, however condemned for sophistical arguments and a mischievous tendency, must yet command admiration for that dazzling splendor of composition, and that stately march of measured prose, which enable them to take the lead perhaps of all other specimens

of the English oratorical style. Yet his reputation as an author has by no means increased in proportion to our nearer acquaintance with his genius; familiarity has had something of its usual effect in diminishing veneration; and, in fact, few volumes are less frequently displaced from the shelves of any library, than the works of Lord Bolingbroke.

This degree of neglect may, however, be partly imputed to the injustice with which a prophet is usually treated in his own country; and the publication before us is an unquestionable proof that his Lordship's character has obtained higher and more lasting praise on the continent:—but we are at liberty to examine the grounds on which it rests, and these do not, in our judgment, materially impeach the correctness of the opinion which we ascribe to our English readers. When he is extolled as an unrivalled statesman for negotiating the peace of Utrecht, which, though it may be approved at Paris, has been universally exposed to the censure of *our* politicians; and when he is almost worshipped as a philosopher for the powerful efforts by which he has rescued the human mind from the *bondage of superstition*; we must pause before we join in such a panegyric pronounced by a Frenchman of the nineteenth century, though he may repeatedly assert that none but *priests* can possibly object to the religion of his hero, and none but *whigs* can arraign his politics.

Nevertheless, though a controversy on these subjects might be maintained by us, without any sacrifice of truth and liberty to national prejudice or theological bigotry, the reader will probably hear with satisfaction that we are far from wishing to revive such antiquated and unprofitable polemics. Our only concern is with the personal qualities of a man whose talents and opportunities must inevitably secure to him a very conspicuous rank in the annals of our empire.

Various original publications have already placed Bolingbroke in different points of view before his countrymen;—his own voluminous *works*, edited, according to the requisition of his will, by Mallet, a short time after his Lordship's death;—the posthumous miscellanies of his distinguished correspondents, Pope and Swift;—the Hardwicke State-Papers;—and last in time, though perhaps the first in value and importance, the political papers for which we were about twelve years ago indebted to Mr. Park. The greater part of the materials of which the present volumes are composed are derived from these several sources: but another, hitherto inaccessible, has been discovered, by which they have been considerably enriched. The editor, General GRIMOARD, informs us that he had the good fortune to receive from the Comte *de*

Sancé

Sancé a large collection of letters indubitably genuine, addressed by Bolingbroke to the Abbé *Alari*; a man who was eminent for erudition, was successively tutor to Louis the Fifteenth and his son the Dauphin, and was afterward one of the forty of the French academy. The collection was immediately destined for the press: but it is still more fortunate that the General, while preparing these papers for that purpose, was apprized of another series addressed by Bolingbroke to Madame *de Ferriol*, in the possession of 'Mr. Quintin Craufurd, a Scotchman of distinction, who has been many years fixed in France by his love of *Letters* and *the Arts*,' Great Britain being, we presume, wholly destitute of both! They appear to have been preserved by Mr. Craufurd as inestimable relics; and he permitted the publication of those which were in his custody, only on condition that all the originals appertaining to both correspondences should finally remain in his hands.

Among the various collections thus combined, and furnishing in the whole three hundred and fifty one epistles, those which were obtained in the manner above described, and are now first published, naturally form the first, or rather are the only proper objects of our present criticism; and though the external evidence, by which their authenticity is established, can admit of no reasonable doubt, we shall introduce them to our readers by a specimen so pointedly characteristic of the author, as almost to supersede the necessity of any other proof. It was addressed to the Abbé *Alari*, on the 25th of June 1723, when measures were in progress for obtaining a pardon from George the First, and restoring Bolingbroke to his country. The Abbé appears to have taken a very active part in those negotiations, and was probably in London, where it was intended that this letter should be shewn. It is the same which has here been selected for the purpose of exhibiting the chirograph of Lord Bolingbroke:

"I do not like apologies, and *I need them not*. I have preferred a long exile to an equivocal return: but all is equivocal to the ignorant, who are ill-informed of facts, and to the half-witted, who could not judge even if they were informed. Were I to enter into the detail of all that has happened for some years past, I should write a volume.—no letter could contain it. But, my dear friend, *here is an answer which shall close the mouths of all who have not renounced reason and natural equity*. I served the late Queen to the hour of her death, and I think no man will accuse me of having failed in any point of duty towards her. After that time, I was in the interests of the Chevalier *de Saint George*; and as often as it may please those who charge me with having failed in those engagements, I am ready to give an account of the manner in which I entered into and

departed from them. In the mean time, I beg you to say on my part, to all who may hold the malicious language which you have mentioned to me, that *if they can advance a single proved fact* to justify any one of their accusations, I shall own myself guilty of all, to which the weakness of some and the iniquity of others has given currency in the world. After such a declaration, those who cannot produce facts, accompanied by proofs, ought to be silent, or they will be despised as calumniators.

"BOLINGBROKE."

That person must, in our opinion, be wholly impenetrable to the force of internal evidence, who does not instantly recognize the style, the tone, and the moral and intellectual habits of the writer, in these broad assertions and bold defiances,—this call for specific proof against him, when he undertakes by proof to destroy a general imputation,—this "conclusion, in which nothing is concluded,"—this explanation by which nothing is explained,—this daring challenge to no individual,—and this sweeping allegation of ignorance and folly against all who may question conduct the most questionable that the world ever witnessed. The letter is in fact an epitome of the celebrated pamphlet to Sir William Windham; the most entertaining, and perhaps the best, of all Lord Bolingbroke's compositions, but lamentably inadequate, in every point of view, to the purpose of effecting his vindication.

All the other allusions to politics in this additional correspondence are so extremely slight, as to possess no interest or information: it must likewise be stated that the series does not begin till after Lord Bolingbroke had left the service of the Pretender, of whom we should have hailed with pleasure any contemporary anecdotes. Neither is it much tainted with the writer's peculiar notions on religious subjects; though these may be occasionally detected, as in his complaints of his first wife, who seems to have become a saint on being abandoned by her Lord. "Certainly," says he to Madame *de Ferriol*, "I have great reason to complain of the late Lady Bolingbroke; and the difference between returning this year to England and having returned last year will amount to many hundred thousand francs. She deceived the King, (who had, in consideration for me, released a part of the confiscation,) as well as me, who had put every thing under her name. She died a devotee. What a supple quality is religion! how it lends itself to every thing, how it sanctifies every thing, when it is managed by an able director! I thank the Maréchal for his anger. If I return to my country, I shall find means of preventing a great part of what has been done

done against me, from producing its effect. In every case, *if my misfortunes diminish my property, they also diminish my desires.*"

The concluding sentiment is perpetually flowing, in an endless variety of well-sounding phrases, from the philosophical pen of Lord Bolingbroke. On the advantages of exile and other calamities, in teaching men to subdue their passions, and to prefer moral and intellectual acquisitions to sensual enjoyments,—and on the happy state of those whose desires are under the dominion of enlightened reason,—he is never tired of enlarging: yet the number is not small of these moral epistles, in which he earnestly requests his female friend to provide him with a *scientific cook*; and when she sends one who does not understand his business, the tender intimacy of these faithful correspondents appears to be a little endangered. M. *Alari* is commonly requested to procure books for the noble student, who devotes many hours of his agreeable retirement at La Source to historical researches. On the whole, we cannot say that these letters have answered our expectations. The greater part of them consist of such ordinary compliments as pass in all well-bred society, and prove no more than that the writer moved in a certain sphere of life. From the mass, we snatch a few scraps on literary subjects:

"I shall be much obliged to you, my dear Madam, for the perusal which you are kind enough to offer me of M. *Arouet's (Voltaire's)* tragedy *(Œdipe)*. Even if I had not heard that drama mentioned with praise, still I could not but feel a great impatience to read it. He who begins his career, in assuming the cothurnus, by emulating so great an original as *Corneille*, makes a very bold effort, and yet, perhaps, a more prudent one than is generally supposed. I doubt not that to M. *Arouet* may be applied the words which M. *Corneille* puts into the mouth of the *Cid*; "In truth his merit waits not for length of years, and his first essay stamps him at once a master"—(*et son coup d'essai passe pour un coup de maître*").

Again, at the distance of seven years:

"Did you receive some time ago a letter, which I wrote to you, and a second which I wrote to *Voltaire*? You told me in one of yours, that he wished to dedicate his poem (the Henriade) to me. So fine a work requires a more considerable patron. I am ready to do him all the service that depends on me; my friendship for him, and the real merit of his poem, would be sufficient to engage me to do so, and I want no other motive. It is possible that he may change his intention; it is even possible that he never entertained it: but the favour which I have to request of you is to *sound him thoroughly* on the subject, and to *put me in possession of his designs*. I will frankly tell you my motive. I should be curious to know in what manner

he proposes to speak of me, for a reason quite opposite to that which weighed with Cicero when he wrote to his friend Lucceius. I fear praise, because I fear ridicule. I have other things to say to you on this subject, but this will do for the present. Keep my secret, and send your answer at leisure."

What steps the lady took, or what answer she sent, we are not informed: but, in about a month, the following sentences are addressed to her by Lord Bolingbroke:

"What you relate respecting *Voltaire* and his projects accords with his character, and is quite probable: but what he says to me is quite the reverse. Some time hence I will reply to him, and will leave him all his life the satisfaction of believing that he has made me his dupe by means of a little *verbiage*. I should be very sorry to have the *cook*, who offered himself to M. *le Chevalier de Rochepierre*: he is not a bad cook, but is far from being half so good as he thinks himself, and besides he is mad. I only require a servant who has *taste*, the *first principles of his art*, and docility; *I will do the rest myself*, and I will make his fortune, if he will *trust to me*," &c. Vol. iii. p. 274.

We found the temptation irresistible to extract this critique on M. *de Rochepierre*'s cook, and *the idea* of a perfect cook that ensues. His Lordship appears to undertake for a series of instruction not inferior to what he afterward presented to "a patriot prince!" Let it be observed, too, that my lord is every thing on the occasion, and that my lady seems to have no share of empire in the culinary dominions. Principally, however, we quoted these passages because they give an opportunity of adverting to the suspicious and distrustful character of Lord Bolingbroke. What projects existing in the mind of *Voltaire* the female negotiator may have brought to light, we are at a loss to conjecture: but surely his offer of dedicating to a foreigner, in exile, the greatest of his poetical works, proves the disinterested admiration with which *Voltaire* regarded his character, and was in itself no despicable compliment. Why should it be doubted whether he entertained the design, when he actually made the offer; and how could he be suspected of meditating such praise as would make its object ridiculous, when the dedication was to be prefixed to a work to which he was extravagantly partial, and in which his own glory was involved?

The reader shall now be presented with a passage in which the writer paints his own situation and sentiments with some labour, and which perhaps he would have been more likely to select for publication than any other in this collection:

"I should have been extremely sorry, my dear Abbé (*Alari*), if my letter had made you return from Courbevoie a moment sooner than you intended. I ask for your friendship with perfect sincerity, as I give you mine: but I should expect you to refuse it, if, in your

intercourse with me, you admitted the same forms that are introduced into the ordinary commerce of life by those who understand the world as well as you do. Politeness, and even ceremony, are benefits in civil society, and therefore ought to be maintained: but they have so little connection with friendship, that if we always remained within the bounds prescribed by them, we should never arrive at it.

"You have not discovered, you say, any parologism, (a word, which to say the truth I do not very well understand,) in the conversation held between us at the races. This may be so, and it proceeds from your not paying the same attention to a conversation so vague as ours, that I have since given to the reflections suggested by it.

"Nothing is so worthy of man as a sincere search after truth, but few apply to it. You do, and I rejoice at it. At your age, and with your talents, a great progress may be made. I am but beginning; and neither the consideration of the time which I have lost, nor that of a much impaired state of health, can discourage me:

"*Est quodam prodire tenus, si non datur ultra.*"

"Those truths of which the knowlege is necessary to our living happily, and dying with tranquillity, are neither numerous nor difficult to discover, provided that we act with simplicity, and do not deceive ourselves; a conduct which is much less frequent than is generally supposed. In my own way of thinking, and in that of Fortune towards me, there is every appearance that I shall pass the rest of my days in solitude; perhaps in that very retirement in which I now am. I dare promise you, beforehand, that I shall never regret the loss of that opulence to which I was born, and still less the loss of that to which I once aspired: I shall live there perfectly happy, if I can escape the greater sorrows of the world, and if the silence of my retreat may be sometimes interrupted by conversation so agreeable as yours. Occupied with these ideas, I am labouring to make this place the pleasantest and the most commodious that can be formed, without departing from philosophical moderation. I should be charmed if you could see it in its unimproved state, and I hope that you will often enjoy it when made beautiful. With designs of study, we will unite those of building and gardening; we will read, write, confer, make levels, raise hills, and plant.—

"As you have had the goodness to give me the explanations which I desired, I must tell you my reasons for making the request. The little of antient history which I read in my youth left in my mind the idea that it is impossible to have the least probable knowlege of the events of those times: that the historical and chronological systems, which the learned announce with so much parade and confidence, are founded only on perpetually begging the question; that, if we had the books of which the Greeks have preserved the titles and some fragments, we should only have contradictory and uncertain collections, the vague traditions of two or three nations, each of which wished to assume to itself the honour of antiquity, the birth of gods, the invention of arts, &c.; that it is consequently ridiculous to study

much the *mercedem* that we have, or greatly to regret the loss of what we have not. In meditating on these subjects, many ideas have occurred to me which struck me as new, and pleased me. I amuse myself in examining them with the assistance of three or four books that I have here; and perhaps, when the wreck of my library arrives, and the reparations of *Marcilli* shall be made, I may reduce into some form all these ideas, and the proofs that support them," &c.

In these latter sentences, we find the germ of the once formidable Letters on History. Precisely the same set of ideas also recurs in the long and eloquent address to Lord Bathurst.

The opinion entertained by Lord Bolingbroke, respecting the learned coadjutor in his arduous inquiries, appears in one of his letters to Madame *de Ferriol*: "His illness alarmed me extremely. Great probity of heart, great sweetness of temper, and great politeness of manner, with a vast store of learning, form the character of a man whom it would be melancholy to lose at five-and-twenty," &c. To transcribe even half the passages in which similar sentiments of friendship, esteem, and admiration are expressed, would be a formidable task: but it is lamentable to find that the intercourse between these two persons was entirely broken off, in consequence of a remonstrance made by the Abbé, from a feeling of anxiety for the safety of his friend, against mixing in politics after a return to England, to which his unwearied endeavours had powerfully contributed. The blame of this estrangement we lay entirely to the proud and irritable disposition of Bolingbroke; whose more advanced age, whose superior rank, and in whom the obligations which he had incurred to the Abbé, ought to have prevented any temporary vehemence of manner from interrupting their good understanding. That haughty temper appears, indeed, to have affected all who ever came within the sphere of his intimacy. With his father and brothers he lived in a state of continual discord; he was separated from his first wife: he hated and suspected the man with whom his ministerial power was shared, and his interests were identified: we have seen him jealous of sincere and well-intended civility; and we know that his dearest friend Pope was scarcely cold in his grave, before his memory was assailed with the bitterest libels from the pen of Bolingbroke. Surely all these persons could not be uniformly bent on injuring and degrading him; and perhaps it will not be deemed uncharitable to ascribe his long and apparently cordial union with a man of the character of Dean Swift, to the sea that rolled between them. In the following passage, it will be seen that the harmony of his domestic life was not undisturbed by dreadful gusts of jealousy and passion:

He became acquainted, about the beginning of 1717, with the *Marquise de Villette*; whose family name was *Deschamps de Marcilly*, and who was the daughter or niece of the governor of La Meute. She was educated at St. Cyr, and married the Marquis *de Villette-Mursay*, a relation of Madame *de Maintenon*, a widower with children. He died in 1707, without issue of his second marriage. In 1717 his widow was *fifty-two years of age*, had a very considerable fortune, and many law suits. Without being handsome, she understood the art of pleasing; she had wit, and would even have spoken with elegance, if she had spoken rather less. Bolingbroke was enchanted by her, and she fell in love with him: but the jealousy of the former more than once disturbed their union. Persuaded that an Englishman (Scotchman) called Macdonald, then first groom to the Pretender, and a very handsome man, was agreeable to Madame *de Villette*, Bolingbroke was so offended that, when dining one day at her house in company with the supposed rival, he overturned the glasses and the table. The Marquis *de Matignon*, one of the guests and their common friend, reconciled them *this time, and many others*. The young Abbé *Alari*, who witnessed the scene, related it afterward to the Marquis *de Sancé*; adding that, in 1715, Madame *de Villette* had charged him to confide to the Comte *de Boulainvilliers*, who piqued himself on drawing horoscopes, the date of her birth, and some other signs of the same sort; and that, after having declined the commission, he took the paper to the pretended astrologer, who replied: "This person has a great many passions; but she will encounter one greater than all the rest at fifty-two, and will die in a foreign land."

It can scarcely be necessary to state that the letters to Madame *de Ferriol* and the Abbé *Alari* are written in French, of which Lord Bolingbroke is said to have been a complete master; though we have often discovered slight corrections made by the editor, in several idioms of the French portion of the political correspondence here printed from the publication of Mr. Park. That correspondence is also given with many omissions and some mutilations. Such of the letters of Pope and Swift as have been adopted are translated into French. The notes are very copious, and are principally devoted to characters mentioned in the text; not only including various highly entertaining anecdotes of distinguished families, which we are sorry to be debarred by our limits from detailing, but adding biographical notices of the worthies of antient times, Pythagoras, Aristotle, Plato, &c.—with translations of every Latin quotation. For this addition an apology is made, stating that the knowlege of Latin has become so rare, as to make such translation necessary in France!

Some account is given of the life of Abbé *Alari*, and of a political society called the *Entresol*, from assembling in the Abbé's apartments of that denomination, but which was suppressed by the jealousy of the French government. These details are foreign to

to our present purpose, but we shall be excused for reporting one of the anecdotes of this gentleman:

'During the two months which were passed by the Abbé *Alari* in London, he visited the University of Cambridge, and the great Newton, who then enjoyed in the capital of England the general esteem of Europe, and 50,000 livres (£2000) a year, as Master of the Mint. The Abbé waited on him at nine in the morning; and the Englishman opened the conversation by telling him that he was eighty-three years old. In his room was the portrait of Lord Halifax his protector, and that of Abbé *Varignon*; whose geometrical works he valued. "*Varignon*, and Father *Sabastian* the Carmelite," said he, "are those who have best understood my system of colours." The conversation then turned on antient history, on which Newton was at that period employed. The Abbé, full of Greek and Latin reading, pleased him, and was invited to dinner: but the repast was detestable; for Newton was avaricious, and gave his guest only Palm wine and Madeira, which he had received as presents. After dinner, he took the Abbé to the Royal Society of London, of which he was president, and placed him at his right hand. *The sitting began, and Newton fell asleep.* At the end of the sitting, every one signed the register, and the Abbé among the rest. Newton took him back to his house, and kept him there till nine at night.'

It is time for us to direct our attention to M. GRIMOARD's historical essay, which might be more justly termed an elaborate panegyric, on the life of Bolingbroke. If that nobleman's disapprobation of Dean Swift's history of the last four years of Queen Anne, on account of its barefaced partiality, was not altogether assumed, he would still more earnestly have deprecated the publication of the present piece of biography: but if Warburton was right, in attributing that disapprobation to the superiority assigned by Swift to Lord Treasurer Oxford, Bolingbroke certainly would find in this memoir no reason for such a complaint. Achilles is not more absolutely the hero of Homer, nor Æneas of Virgil, than the English statesman has obtained that rank in the narration of the French General. As much as possible he has made Bolingbroke a witness in his own cause, by copying largely from all the political statements drawn up by him at various times: in other points he has closely followed the authority of Swift; who, besides the motives of private friendship which could not fail to bias his judgment in weighing characters, deserves to be ranked with the most violent party-writers that ever united the strongest prejudices with the most extraordinary talents. The Dean is said by M. GRIMOARD to be too little known to the French public; and his friend Mr. Quintin Craufurd, whom we have before mentioned, has it in contemplation to introduce him to their better acquaintance by a work expressly composed on the subject

subject of the influence obtained by Swift in national affairs. Whether an accurate and impartial inquiry would leave that distinguished man in possession of all the compliments which in his life-time were so profusely applied to his political conduct, we shall not offer any opinion, till the opportunity shall present itself of examining Mr. Craufurd's intended work on this question.

The editor assumes credit, however, for speaking the truth in some particulars with more distinctness than any English writer could possibly be bold enough to manifest. He professes also to have adopted many observations from M. *de St. Lambert*, whose posthumous works contain an essay on the life and the works of Lord Bolingbroke, composed in 1753 at the request of Lord Cornbury, who furnished some materials, but did not live to revise the work.

'This was the more necessary (says he) because it supplied much that is not to be found in any history of England; and indeed such a history of that epoch, at which the house of Brunswick-Hanover came to the throne, remains still to be written. Many events then occurred, of which the impartial recital could be neither agreeable nor flattering to the new dynasty; and this probably is the reason that has prevented them from being hitherto reported by English writers. It is certain that *Hume himself found it less inconvenient to leave his history of England unfinished, than to continue it under shackles and with concealments, which would have spoiled the value and the character of the work.* Smollet has been less delicate; yet all that he relates from the year 1714, *if not altered, is at least mutilated.* As we are under no necessity of observing similar caution, we have neglected nothing that could develope the facts with clearness and impartiality; confining ourselves always within the limits prescribed by our subject.'

Thus says General GRIMOARD:—but we were not aware that Hume declined to complete his history of England for the reason above given; nor could we have supposed that Smollet would be accused of altering, or garbling, any facts that were unfavourable to the Whigs and the House of Hanover, who are thus libelled with the imputation of suppressing historical truth by the hand of power. We shall translate the few facts related in this historical essay, which belong to the particular matter in question; not less for their own curiosity, than with the specific purpose of shewing that the liberty of the English press is not liable to the restraints supposed by this subject of Napoleon.

In describing the intrigues employed by the Whigs and the ambassadors of the allied powers to defeat the negotiations that ended in the peace of Utrecht, the conduct of the Hanoverian minister is thus introduced:

'*Bothmar*

'*Bothmar*, flattering himself no doubt with the hope of better success than *Gallatch* and *Bugs* had experienced, by the influence which the name of his master, the presumptive heir to the throne of Great Britain after Anne, might possess over the English, presented a memorial on the 8th of December to dissuade the Queen from treating with Louis XIV. and with Spain. This step was perhaps also dictated by the fear of an agreement between the courts of London and Versailles to exclude from the crown the Elector, whom Anne never loved, and to procure it, by the assistance of the Tories, for the Pretender James the Third, then taking refuge in France: a plan which the Hanoverians expected to render more difficult by these means, and by continuing closely united with the Whigs, whom they regarded as their principal supporters, in consequence of their known aversion to the catholic branch of the Stuarts. Notwithstanding an act of the English parliament, which secured the crown to the Elector, that prince was not ignorant that he had enemies in his future kingdom; and that, in spite of the antiquity of the House of Brunswick, the grandees of England respected it so little, that many of them said that they should feel it hard to reconcile themselves to seeing a truly royal line replaced by a family of German burghers, whom it would be necessary to enrich. Perhaps also the Elector apprehended that the English, much attached to legal forms, might have conceived a bad opinion of his character, in consequence of an act of real tyranny. The report of an intrigue of gallantry between his wife and a Count *de Konigsmarck* had made him resolve to throw the Count into a burning furnace; to confine the lady in a fortress, and afterward to treat with great harshness the electoral prince, whom he did not believe to be his son. These several motives influenced the conduct of George-Louis, who attached himself to the different parties which promised the most support to his pretensions to the crown of England.'

We shall here only observe that the facts recited in the above paragraph rest on the authority of Secret Memoirs of the Duchess of Hanover, published in 1732, *in London*, (a bad proof of the prohibition said to be imposed on the press by the princes of the House of Brunswick,) and that they are all reported at large by the English historians Belsham and Coxe, confirmed in some respects by the statement of Mr. Wraxall. It is also here added in a note that those memoirs were attributed to the Baron *de Poelnitz*, a Prussian; and that Frederic-William the First, King of Prussia, who detested George the Second, probably took delight in giving circulation to a book by which the legitimacy of the English King was called in question.

In a subsequent passage, after having asserted that all the English historians *have been afraid to* publish what might displease the reigning family, and that we should be reduced to conjecture as to the wrongs committed by the Earl of Oxford against the Queen, if they were not clearly explained in the memoirs

memoirs of the Duke *de Berwick*,' the editor proceeds to state, from those memoirs, the secret negotiation which was carried on between the Earl of Oxford, when Lord High Treasurer, and the Pretender, who was long lured by false hopes of being restored to the succession on the death of his sister, by the intrigues of that close and crafty minister. "But first," said Harley, by the mouth of Abbé *Gaultier*, his organ on this occasion, "let us subdue our common enemies the Whigs, let us confirm our popularity by establishing a permanent peace, and then by degrees we may safely expel from all the offices of state every man whom we cannot trust with this weighty secret." The Pretender instructed all the Jacobites to give an entire support to the ministry, who triumphed over their domestic enemies, and negotiated a treaty with France: but, when he looked for the reward of his confidence, and urged the declining health of Anne as a reason for taking immediate and decisive measures towards a repeal of the Act of Settlement, it was found that Oxford's relation, then an Envoy at the court of Hanover, had made his peace with the parliamentary successor to the throne.

These details, of which all the material parts are to be found stated with equal particularity in the works of our own historians, appear to M. GRIMOARD to throw considerable light on the only part of Lord Bolingbroke's history which now stands much in need of illustration;—we mean the nature and causes of his violent dissensions with Lord Oxford, and of the Queen's sudden resolution to raise Bolingbroke to supreme power, on the ruin of the Treasurer. He is evidently of opinion that Anne had permitted and encouraged Oxford's mysterious dealings with her brother; and that her chagrin, on discovering the treachery of that minister, (denounced to her, as he also supposes, by Bolingbroke,) not only dissolved the existing administration, but suddenly put an end to her life. He even goes so far as to intimate a suspicion that Her Majesty's death was not occasioned, according to a common report, by the intemperate use of strong liquors, but by poison administered, we presume, by Oxford, who was at that particular time the only person interested in removing her. He dwells at length on the presumptive proofs in favour of his hypothesis, mentions the reported last words of the Queen,—"My dear brother, how I pity you!"—and describes the disappointment of Bolingbroke; from whom the Treasurer's staff, which he had expected, was wrested by the Duke of Shrewsbury, in the last moments of the expiring Queen. He then adduces some new facts in support of his statement.

The

" The author of this Historical Essay has derived a part of these details on the disgrace of the Earl of Oxford and the death of Anne, (which agree, in all essential points, with the relation of Smollet, in his History of England,) from Mrs. Lucy Elstob, of Yorkshire, the widow of David Mallet, Esquire, Lord Bolingbroke's friend, and the editor of his works. She declared that *she had often heard his Lordship make the recital*, and that on one occasion he added with emotion: " This unfortunate Queen was a model of virtue, the best offspring of the miserable house of Stuart, and the sovereign who least of all deserved to be so basely betrayed." These words have great weight in the mouth of Bolingbroke, whose honour is so generally acknowleged, that the most furious of his enemies have never attacked his veracity; he would not, then, have taxed the Earl of Oxford with treachery, if he had felt the least doubt on that subject; and perhaps he knew even more than he mentioned, whether he declined to explain himself farther from a conviction of the inutility or from a sense of the danger of such a disclosure. It is certain that, to the last moment of his life, he never ceased to execrate the memory of Oxford; whom he accused of fraud, of baseness, of having ruined the Tories, and of being the origin of all the treachery which the Queen experienced; for it is no longer possible to doubt that the Queen, having confided too much in Lord Oxford, intrusted him with the care of opening the way to the throne, after her, to her brother James the Third; and that, at the very time of his pretending to concur in this measure, he revealed the secret of his benefactress to the Elector, and to the Duke of Marlborough, who was more able and more interested than any other person to defeat the project. At least it was not without powerful motives that the Duke suddenly quitted Aix la-Chapelle, and landed at Dover on the very day of the Queen's death."

It would have been of infinite importance here to distinguish with accuracy those parts of the statement, which were communicated by Bolingbroke to Mrs. Mallet; and the absence of such a distinction leaves our knowlege of the transaction very much in the same state in which it was before. That the Queen considered herself as cruelly used by Oxford is proved by various testimonies, but most strongly perhaps by a letter written at that crisis by Lady Masham to Swift, and published among the Dean's works, betraying the extreme agitation of her mind, and her own as well as her mistress's violent indignation against the discarded Treasurer. By what collision of circumstances that tempest of anger was excited, we still confess our ignorance: but when we consider the general disclosures produced by the unexampled political convulsions and personal animosities of the time, we find it impossible to persuade ourselves that the facts here attempted to be inferred should be left to mere inference. If Bolingbroke had been privy to the secret of Oxford's double treachery in his intrigues

intrigues with the Pretender and the Elector of Hanover, would not the fact have been published at the time of his own engagements with the Pretender? or could it have been buried in total darkness during the remaining forty years of his turbulent life? or is it credible that no trace of it should have been discoverable among his posthumous papers? In a word, could any consideration have restrained his impetuous and resentful spirit from denouncing such base duplicity in the conduct of his detested rival, to the immortal execration of all posterity?

In writing to Swift and his other friends, Bolingbroke constantly inveighs against the personal hostility of Oxford towards himself, and the low manœuvres to which that nobleman stooped, for the purpose of undermining him in the favour of his royal mistress: but towards *her* we recollect no charge of treachery. What sense, then, must be assigned to the language imputed to him by Mrs. Mallet? We must frankly own our doubt of the correctness of that Lady's report, and our suspicion that she may have unintentionally committed some mistake in relation to the sentiments expressed by him. We cannot conceive that he would have said so much without saying a great deal more, nor that he would have lamented her being betrayed in general terms, without detailing the facts which established the treachery.—On the whole, we see no reason for departing from the conclusion drawn by Mr. Belsham, that Lord Oxford corresponded with the Pretender merely to secure for his ministry the support of the Jacobite party, and that Bolingbroke was kept in ignorance of the negotiation. We entertain indeed considerable doubt whether the Queen herself was privy to it, and deem it not improbable that her partiality to her brother had never assumed the shape of any definite project: but that some unexpected discovery, (as possibly by an intercepted letter,) that her prime minister had been at the same time deceiving the brother whom she loved, and courting her parliamentary successor whom she hated, alienated her affection and confidence from him, and sealed his disgrace. It is not unlikely that such a discovery, if made, would be concealed from Bolingbroke, who was at that time adverse to the Pretender's interest.—But this is all conjecture, and as such we offer it.

That Mrs. Mallet was not quite a correct reporter may also be inferred from another passage in this essay. The writer says that he was formerly acquainted with her, and that she died about fifteen years ago at the age of eighty, adding: 'This lady, equally distinguished by good sense and information, had lived in strict intimacy with Bolingbroke, Swift, Pope,

Pope, and many other distinguished persons, who sometimes assembled at her house; and she has been frequently heard to say that this was *a society of pure deists*: but that Swift, in his quality of Dean of St. Patrick's, *was only a little more reserved than the others, though at bottom his opinions were the same.*' Few persons, we apprehend, will believe this of Swift; though the *good* Queen Anne, "the Church of England's glory," was sagaciously convinced that none but an atheist could have written the *Tale of a Tub*, and though Queen Caroline's favourable intentions towards him were afterward defeated by the insinuation of a narrow and doting prelate. Swift's writings contain innumerable proofs of a firm belief in the great truths of Christianity, of the highest regard for its sanctions, and of a mind perfectly orthodox in regard to discipline, though chargeable perhaps by his brethren of the sacred order with indifference as to the sublimer mysteries of theology. Another proof is to be found in the letters of Bolingbroke, who always imposes considerable restraint and even disguise on himself, when addressing his reverend correspondent.

Such an imputation on the Dean of St. Patrick's is, however, rather less whimsical than the circumstance of his friend Bolingbroke being revered in his life-time, or at least during his possession of power, as the leader and champion of the high-church party, against the claims of the dissenters from the establishment. His infamous schism-bill, defeated by the timely death of Queen Anne, was a step towards rekindling the fires of Smithfield. It is truly edifying to peruse his letters which condemn the latitudinarianism of his political adversaries, and deprecate all concessions to those who differ in opinion; insisting that bare *toleration* is the utmost favour which they ought to receive, and that even this shall be conferred under the title of *indulgence*, not of *toleration*. In a letter to Dr. Robinson, Bishop of Bristol, and afterward of London, he devoutly subscribes himself "a true son of the Church;" and we believe that the Church has always had a numerous and dutiful family of the same description.

On the subject of Lord Bolingbroke's philosophy, his biographer assumes a bolder tone than we ever before observed in the boasts of infidelity; and falsely claims for him as the highest merit, what has often in different terms been as falsely imputed to others as the blackest stain, that he was the *first* to penetrate that Egyptian darkness of the mind, which, it is to be hoped, will never return, &c. &c. The detailed exposition of his doctrines is, however, so extremely loose and imperfect as to offer nothing to our examination; it occupies less space

space than an elaborate defence of his consistency; which was called in question by Dr. Sheridan, on the ground of his bequeathing his sceptical works to Mallet for publication, after having condemned, in a letter to Swift, all those free-thinkers, stigmatized by him as "scourges of society," whose "endeavours are directed to break its bonds and to remove a powerful curb from that ferocious animal, man, who rather requires the additional restraint of many others."—(We translate the French translation of that letter.) To have failed in removing this charge is not very discreditable to the ingenuity of any advocate.

We have expatiated perhaps too long on the contents of these volumes; in which, though the editor has laboured to throw the bright veil of indiscriminate panegyric over a chequered character, his facts and documents have presented a more correct idea of it than he contemplated. Bolingbroke is one of our most distinguished statesmen, but he is far from ranking with the most estimable. An ardent imagination, uncontrouled passions, great vanity, and insatiable ambition, betrayed him into numberless contradictions; and they exhibit him as an unbeliever fighting the battles of the High Church, —as a Whig in principle endeavouring to restore the Pretender, —as placing his chief glory in the negotiation of a peace which he allowed to be inadequate, and which he never ceased to slander Walpole for preserving, — and, lastly, as a moral philosopher, hurried away by extreme violence of temper, and indulging all his passions with unbridled licentiousness. His classical and striking countenance is prefixed as a frontispiece: but the French engraving is much inferior, in spirit and expression, to the sketch which generally accompanies his letter to Sir William Wyndham. It probably is taken from a likeness painted at a more advanced age.

We should add that, in course, a number of interesting particulars respecting eminent persons of Bolingbroke's time occurs in the notes to these volumes, some of which are derived from known sources, and some are referable to the Editor's researches. Among others, will be found a curious anecdote relative to *D'Alembert*, and to his connection with Mademoiselle *de l'Espinasse*, which we shall detail in our report of that Lady's Letters, in Art. VII. of this Appendix.

ART. II. *Essai sur l'Influence*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Influence of the Crusades; a Work which shared the Prize on the following Question, proposed April 11, 1806, by the Class of History and Antient Literature in the Institute of France; "*What has been the Influence of the Crusades on the Civil Liberty of the People of Europe, on their Civilization, and on the Progress of Knowlege, Commerce, and Industry?*" By A. H. L. HEEREN, Professor of History in the University of Gottingen, Member of the Royal Society of Sciences in the same City, &c. Translated from the German by *Charles Villers*, Correspondent of the Institute of France, Member of the Royal Society of Sciences of Gottingen, &c. 8vo. pp. 535. Paris. 1808. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

THAT the Deity brings good out of evil, and in the course of his Providence converts the mad and wicked proceedings of his creatures to purposes that are not in the contemplation of the agents themselves, is a truth which is sanctioned by the experience of history, and from which the wise derive consolation on observing the immediate effects of folly and misrule in the nations of the earth. We know not, however, of any instance which more strikingly illustrates this remark, than the singular fanaticism which was first excited in Europe by Peter the Hermit in the eleventh century; and which enflamed the minds of Monarchs and their subjects with a desire of rescuing the Holy Land, the theatre of our Lord's birth, ministry and passion, from the hands of infidels. The wildness of the project was even surpassed by the enthusiasm with which it was prosecuted; all considerations of policy seem to have been lost in religious zeal; and the population of Europe was drained in a war which was at once ludicrous and disastrous. Yet, notwithstanding the contempt which we entertain for the chief actors in this *unreligious war of religion*, and the concern which we feel for the deluded multitudes who became its willing victims, we are led to contemplate it as a most powerful exciting cause of European civilization, and to regard its consequences as beneficial in several points of view.

Between those two great events, the Crusade and the Reformation, this difference subsists, that the benefits which accrued from the former were neither intended nor foreseen: but that in the latter the wisdom and the fortitude of the projector are both conspicuous. When we speculate on the blessings which have flowed from the annihilation of Papal despotism, we are ready to acknowlege our obligations to Luther: but, as M. *Villers* observes in his preface,

"That commerce, agriculture, and certain branches of knowlege, obtained some progress in Europe by means of the *Crusades*; that the feudal

feudal system there found the principle of its ruin; that powerful cities arose, within the walls of which were prepared the general abolition of servitude, the freedom of the people, and the establishment of a third-estate which became the focus of true civilization; —certainly for these consequences we owe no thanks to Peter the Hermit, to Urban II., nor even to St. Bernard. Their object was to deliver the holy sepulchre from the hands of Mohammedans, and the Popes joined in the scheme to advance their own authority: but whatever were the motives which led to the undertaking, the *Crusades* produced an universal and terrible convulsion, which shook all the parts of the social edifice, overturning some, giving stability to others, obliging others to be re-constructed, and producing, as well for states as for individuals, a new mode of existence. The effects, then, which were caused by it were like the unforeseen effects of an earthquake; which, overturning rocks, substitutes in their place fertile fields; or which, tearing open the bosom of a mountain, discovers veins of gold which had remained till then concealed.

'These considerations will enable us to perceive the reason why the work of M. *Villers** is intitled *An Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation*, while that which is now before us has only for its title *An Essay on the Influence of the Crusades*. The Reformation was in truth the product of mind: but the results of the Crusades were the effects of chance, or rather of circumstances altogether foreign to the thoughts and intentions of the Crusaders.'

Though this Essay is announced as a translation, the original work (as it should seem) has never appeared; of which the following explanation is given.—M. HEEREN having politely declined to contest the prize with M. *Villers*, on the first question respecting the Reformation by Luther, which was proposed by the Institute in 1802, though he had in some degree prepared himself for the discussion, M. *Villers* returned the compliment by withdrawing himself from the lists on the second question; in order that M. HEEREN might have an opportunity of gathering laurels equal to his own. Not contented, however, with merely retiring from the contest, M. *Villers* afforded the Gottingen Professor every assistance towards obtaining the prize; and he persuaded the latter to compose his memoir in German, to transmit the MS. to him in sheets, and to entrust to him the charge of translating it. Hence it happened that the Members of the Institute formed their judgment of M. HEEREN's work from M. *Villers*'s manuscript, and the translation became as it were the original. While the translator makes this seeming boast, he takes care not to abridge his friend's fame. He apologizes for haste, and assures us that he has rarely made any alterations in the German memoir, and still less frequently subjoined any additions of

* For an account of which, see M. R. Vol. xlix. N. S. p. 190.

his own. According to M. *Villers*'s report, the original Essay required little emendation; the subject having been treated with the gravity, simplicity, and spirit of critical research, which belong to the true historian: but to us it appears that the whole has now more the cast of a French than of a German work.

Some pertinent general remarks, on the effects of emigration, or of the transmigration of large bodies of men from their native region to new and distant countries, form the introduction to this Essay. In this light the author considers the Crusades, the period of which he not improperly calls *the heroic age of Christianity*. The distance of this æra from the present, and the obscurity which envelops it, may render a perfect history of it impracticable; yet sufficient evidence remains to prove that 'the influence of the Crusades has been immense; that their consequences have embraced the West and the East, from the shores of the Tagus (the writer might have said from the Thames) to those of the Nile and the Euphrates; that they have decided the condition of many nations and empires; and that they have prepared for subsequent generations the most important modifications in the social state of Europe for several ages. We should no doubt exceed the truth, were we to assert that this actual order of things in politics and civilization resulted immediately from the Crusades: but no one can deny that they have powerfully contributed to this end. What a wide field is here opened to our researches: but how great are the difficulties, how dark is the obscurity, with which it is enveloped!'

To qualify us for this interesting discussion, the author first presents a view of the *chronology*, the *geography*, and the *organization* of the Crusades; under each of which heads, as much of the history of the Holy War is developed as is necessary for his object. If we include the several expeditions of the European Christians to Palestine, for the purpose of delivering it from the hands of the infidels, the duration of the Crusades will be found to extend nearly through two centuries; which M. HEEREN divides into four periods: the first crusade conducted by Godfrey of Boulogne reaching from 1096 to 1146, in which the Holy City fell into the hands of the Christians: the 2d, extending from 1146 to 1187, was occasioned by the loss of Edessa, (which was taken by the Saracens from the Christians in 1142,) and was excited by the famous Abbé of Clairvaux, *St. Bernard*: the 3d, from 1187 to 1246, was undertaken to oppose the victorious Saladin, in which our Richard Cœur-de-Lion bore a part; and the 4th, from 1246 to 1291, was led by *St. Louis*, King

King of France, and terminated in the loss of Ptolemais or St. Jean d'Acre, the last fortress of which the Christians then held possession in Palestine. If we advert to the vast multitudes who were embarked at different times in these Holy Wars, and to the intercourse which for nearly two centuries was maintained with the East, we may fairly conclude that a movement so general, and so much prolonged, towards a country whose inhabitants had so different a character, produced a great effect on the minds of the people of Europe.

In the section on the *Geography* of the Crusades, the different nations who engaged in this enterprize are classed under the general heads of *Franks*, (including the inhabitants of the West of Europe,) *Greeks*, and *Saracens*.

The section on *Organization* offers an account of the different routes by which the Crusaders proceeded to Palestine; and, as the land-expeditions generally rendezvouzed at Constantinople, (then the seat of the Eastern Empire,) the impression which the riches, grandeur, politeness, arts, and letters of this stupendous capital of the Cæsars made on the minds of the uncultivated Christians of the West, is duly pointed out. Hence we trace the holy warriors across the Thracian Bosphorus to the shores of Asia, through the dominions of the sultans of Iconium to Nice, to Nicomedia, and to Antioch, the capital of Syria, at which last place they obtained a second repose; and where, having surmounted the perils of their journey, they found themselves on the borders of the kingdom of Jerusalem.

All of the Crusaders, however, did not proceed to the object of their destination by land, but many went by sea; though it is observed,

'If the maritime route had been the only one that was practicable, the Holy War would not have been marked by such various results; it would not have put such multitudes in motion; and above all it would not have awakened such sentiments among the Western nations as their contact with the Greeks excited. On the other hand, the transportation of large armies by sea led to important consequences: it has given to nautical proceedings a perfection and a boldness which, without doubt, had a mighty influence on the grand voyages and discoveries of subsequent times.'

As to what properly falls under the head of *Organization*, viz. the interior order, arrangement, and discipline of the armies of the Cross, we must not compare it with that of the regular armies of modern Europe. The crowds of religious enthusiasts, who followed Peter the Hermit, resembled the emigrating tribes of *Nomades*, or wandering nations, and the leader was only the first among equals. Kings, nobles, and

clergy engaged in this enterprize; which, thus embracing all the civil and religious professions of society, operated to produce a powerful re-action in all.

These preliminary considerations will prepare us for the examination of the question in due form, which the author has divided into three parts, the 1st treating of *the influence of the Crusades on the civil liberty, manners, and civilization of the people of Europe*; the 2d on *their commerce and industry*; and the 3d on *the progress of knowlege*. The first two present a sketch of the state of Europe towards the end of the eleventh century, in relation to the object here required to be developed. All these points are fully considered: but we should greatly exceed the space which we ought to allow to this article, were we to follow M. HEEREN step by step in his investigation.

Having given a picture of the political situation of Europe previously to these Holy Wars, under distinct heads of the *Hierarchy* and *the civil state*,—including in the latter, *Princes*, *Nobles*, *Citizens*, and *Peasants*,—the author specifically states the influence of the Crusades on each of these classes, and sums up the whole in the following recapitulation:

'They purified and carried to perfection the feudal spirit of the nobility by means of chivalry; which gave to it a more generous and elevated spring, and prevented the return of that barbarism which had prevailed in the three preceding ages.—Let us not, then, fear to repeat the question, What would the middle ages have been without Chivalry?

'The influence of the Crusades on the inhabitants of cities, on their municipal organization, and on corporations, has not been less beneficial. In this respect, the Holy Wars laid the foundation of a new political order for the succeeding ages. The first free burghers have been the germ of our modern nations; and on this basis have been formed in Europe such states as the middle ages never witnessed.

'The central power, viz. that of princes, recovered strength, and found itself able to put an end to that anarchy which marked the decay of the feudal system.

'Nobles become subjects, burghers become commercial, and cities become rich, presented new sources of public revenue; sources that were certain and regular, by which the power of princes has been cemented. This power derived an accession, moreover, from the new order of the *third estate*, which took rank in civil society; an order which the policy of princes opposed to the Nobility, with whom it had frequent contests.

'Thus this very Nobility, which by degrees ceased to be what it had been in the period of anarchy, saw created an opposition, or counterpoise to its power; a counterpoise altogether necessary to the

the formation of that legal and constitutional state, in which all men are admitted to a certain equality of rights.

'It is thus that, by the slow march of amelioration in social institutions, and by the better spirit and principles which have been the result, we are justified in asserting that the benefits of the Crusades have extended even to the class of peasants. It is only in a well-organized state, in which the central power directs and vivifies the whole, that we perceive the value of agriculture, and the consideration which is due to the cultivators of the soil.

'The era of the Crusades saw in *Louis* IX. and in *Suger* a *Henry* IV. and a *Sully*: but ages must elapse before such men could accomplish all the good which was effected by Henry and his minister.

'As to the Hierarchy, we have seen all the advantages which it drew from the Crusades in establishing the supremacy of the Papal see over temporal sovereigns as well as over the church: but these same Crusades, by giving rise to a new civil order in Europe, were in the end fatal to ecclesiastical domination. When Kings became in fact to be Kings, the Popes could not remain what they were before.—Very soon did *Philip the Fair* humble the pontifical power in the person of *Boniface* VIII.

'After the same manner, the corporations, which at first took part with the Popes against the Emperors, in the end injured the cause of the sovereign pontiffs by favouring the authority of monarchs.

'The despotism exercised by Rome over conscience, the violent and coercive measures, the excommunications, the wars against heretics, the terrific inquisition, and its executioners,—in short, all those instruments which seemed to prop and to perpetuate the power of the Popes, served but to inflame the indignation of a more enlightened period, and to consummate the ruin of the hierarchy.

'Thus, after such various evils caused by these long wars, after so much blood spilt by them in Asia and in Europe, humanity will derive some consolation from their results; results for the most part slow, indeed, as derived from a crisis which had lasted for two centuries, and of which it required ages to complete the developement.'

The second part, *on Commerce and Industry*, is discussed with equal minuteness, and the inquiry undergoes the same ramifications: but we do not feel it necessary to present our readers with much more than a general view of this division of the subject. When we recollect that Europe is less rich than any of the other quarters of the globe in natural productions; that, previously to the discovery of the new world, and of the passage to the East round the Cape of Good Hope, almost the whole of its commerce was confined to the Mediterranean sea; and that the riches of India could only be brought to its shores by caravans over land; we can easily suppose that the intercourse of the western nations with the Levant was indeed very confined, and that the Crusades gave energies to commerce which were before unknown and at the time produced great effects. M. HEEREN has illustrated this

point with much ingenuity, in its several bearings; shewing in what way the cities of Italy and Marseilles established their relations and maintained their commerce with Constantinople, and with the cities of Palestine, Syria, and Egypt; and he adduces the origin of maritime law in the famous *Consolato del Mare*, about the middle of the thirteenth century, as an evidence of the extent to which the spirit of commerce was then diffused. It will not be required of us to trace the route of continental commerce which the author has pointed out, nor to explain its effect in rousing industry: but it may not be amiss to state one fact which history has recorded in relation to this branch of the inquiry. Silk-weaving, and the manufacture of silk-stuffs, were introduced into Italy during the era of the Crusades. 'We know that the Latins did not confine their exploits to the conquest of the Holy Land, but attacked the Greek empire. In 1148, Roger II. King of Sicily, having taken Corinth, Thebes, and Athens, then filled, as well as Byzantium, with flourishing manufactories of silk-stuffs, transported thence to Palermo the most able workmen, and charged them to instruct his subjects in their art.' Sugar also was brought at this time into Europe from the Levant, passing from Syria to Sicily, from Sicily to Madeira, and thence to the new world. 'Even in the fourteenth century, the consumption of sugar in Italy was immense; and the taste for sugared pastry and comfits was so prevalent that they grew into universal request.' Many other articles were introduced to the knowlege and use of the Europeans by their intercourse with the Orientals: but the author observes here, in general, that

'The happy influence of the Crusades on European commerce and industry consisted less in the introduction of new articles, whether natural or artificial, than in diffusing a more general use of those which were already known. Silk-stuffs, spices, perfumes, and other riches of the East, were current in Europe from the age of the Carlovingians: but these were not seen excepting in the courts of princes, or in the mansions of some great nobles. As soon, however, as, by means of the Crusades, the European cities were become the centres of activity, commerce, and riches, the luxury, which was before confined to courts, extended itself in every direction; and the mode of living experienced a change in all classes of society. Our cloathing, furniture, and food, altered from the fourteenth century. Architecture, till then rude, assumed a new appearance; and the European noble, prelate, and merchant, who had viewed the magnificent structures of the Orientals, or even of the Italians, which were so superior to those in the West, were desirous of constructing others that should be similar to them, and were not contented with the humble roofs of their ancestors.

'Let

BOOKS

PUBLISHED BY H. D. SYMONDS,

No. 20, Paternoster-Row, London.

BARR'S NEW AND BEAUTIFUL EDITION OF BUFFON'S NATURAL HISTORY,

WITH COLOURED PLATES.

To be completed in One Hundred Numbers.

This Day is published, price 1s. 6d. with the Plates accurately coloured, —or 1s. plain, (to be regularly continued every Week),

NUMBER I.

OF

BUFFON'S NATURAL HISTORY,

CONTAINING

A THEORY OF THE EARTH, A GENERAL HISTORY OF MAN, OF THE BRUTE CREATION, AND OF VEGETABLES, MINERALS, &c. &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH, AND INTERSPERSED WITH NOTES,

By J. S. BARR, Esq.

To which is added, by Way of a complete Supplement,

A NATURAL HISTORY of BIRDS, REPTILES, FISH, & INSECTS.

A NEW EDITION,

Corrected and greatly improved, embellished with an highly-finished Portrait of Buffon, together with Memoirs of his Life, by Condorcet.

TO THE PUBLIC.

In order to render this New Edition of Buffon's Natural History, as worthy as possible of that patronage with which it has been honoured, the Proprietors have obtained from France, a most expensive edition of Buffon in 114 volumes, edited by Sonnini, from which numerous additions, relative to facts which have been discovered since the time of Buffon, have been added in the form of notes. Besides this, the Proprietors have enriched this edition with a beautiful portrait of the Author, and a memoir of his Life, translated expressly from the *Eloge* pronounced by the celebrated Condorcet before the French Academy, and Anecdotes of his private Life, by the Chevalier Aude; and further, to render it as perfect as possible, a Supplementary Volume is added, consisting entirely of descriptions of birds discovered since the death of buffon; being additions made to the original by the celebrated Sonnini, and which are to be found in no other translation. Such are the Improvement and the advantages arising from the entertaining study of Natu History are too generally felt and acknowledged to need any furthe Enlargement in favour of a Work calculated to assist that enlightenin Pursuit. It shall only therefore be remarked, that the present design to give a correct description of the Earth and its Theory; of the Hist of Man and the Brute Creation; of Vegetables, Minerals, and o various Birds, Fish, Reptiles, and insects which adorn animated N

Every Attention has been paid to render this Work as complete and correct as possible, which the Translator and Editor has more particularly undertaken, at the Desire of many of the Nobility and Gentry of this Kingdom, as no complete History of the Kind has hitherto been published.

CONDITIONS.

I. This valuable Work, forming beyond Comparison the most complete and elegant Natural History in this or any other Language, will be beautifully printed in Octavo, on superfine Writing Paper.

II. That it will be embellished with an elegant and numerous set of original Copper-Plates, taken from Life, and engraved in the best manner, by Milton, and other celebrated Engravers.

III. The Colouring of the Subjects will be executed in a superior style, by persons of the first ability in that art.

IV. The Whole will positively be completed in One Hundred Numbers, price 1s. 6d. with the Plates Coloured, or 1s. plain; making together Sixteen handsome Volumes in Octavo.

For the accommodation of purchasers of former editions, the 16th, or supplementary Volume may be had separately, to complete their sets.

SOUTH AMERICA.

This Day is Published,

EMBELLISHED WITH AN ACCURATE PLAN OF THE TOWN OF BUENOS AYRES.

No. I.

OF

A COMPLETE AND AUTHENTIC ACCOUNT

OF THE VICEROYALTY OF

BUENOS AYRES,

IN SOUTH AMERICA:

CONTAINING

THE MOST ACCURATE DETAILS

AS TO THE

Discovery,	Natural History,	Agriculture,
Conquest,	Population,	Productions,
Topography,	Government,	Commerce,
Climate,	Courts of Justice,	Revenues, &c.
Curiosities,	Religion,	

OF THAT VALUABLE COLONY.

WITH

A PARTICULAR ACCOUNT OF ITS SURRENDER TO THE BRITISH FORCES UNDER SIR HOME POPHAM AND GENERAL BERESFORD.

BY SAMUEL HULL WILLCOCKE.

This Work is uniformly and elegantly printed on fine Wove Demy Paper, and comprised in Twelve Numbers, price One Shilling each; ...er containing Forty-eight pages of Letter-press, and form... some Volume in Octavo, embellished with a correct Map ..., an accurate Plan of the Town, and various other Plates ... Natural History, &c.

LIBERAL EDUCATION.

This Day is published, in Two large Volumes Octavo, embellished with an elegant Frontispiece, designed by CORBOULD, and engraved by SPRINGSGUTH, price 18s. in Boards, or in 17 Numbers, to be had by one or more at a Time, price 1s. each. Each Number containing 56 pages of Letter-press, and the Whole embellished with 26 useful and elegant COPPER-PLATES,

THE

ACCOMPLISHED TUTOR;

OR,

COMPLETE SYSTEM OF LIBERAL EDUCATION:

BEING AN

INTRODUCTION

TO

SCIENTIFICAL KNOWLEDGE,

AND

GENTEEL ACCOMPLISHMENTS.

CONTAINING THE

MOST IMPROVED THEORY AND PRACTICE

OF THE

FOLLOWING SUBJECTS.

1. English Grammar and Elocution
2. Penmanship and Short-hand
3. Arithmetic, Vulgar and Decimal
4. Stock-holding and Merchants Accompts
5. Mensuration and Architecture
6. Optics
7. Algebra
8. Doctrine of Annuities
9. Trigonometry
10. Logarithms
11. Geography
12. Astronomy
13. Mechanics
14. Electricity
15. Pneumatics
16. Hydrostatics
17. Hydraulics
18. Drawing, Engraving, and Painting

AND A VARIETY OF OTHER USEFUL MATTER.

THIRD EDITION, CORRECTED.

BY THOMAS HODSON.

The following is a List of PLATES given in the Course of the Work:—

1. Various Copies for the Attainment of the Art of Writing
2. The Characters of Short-hand
3. Geometrical Figures
4. The Five Orders of Architecture
5. Of Solar Microscopes
6. Of Single Microscopes
7. Dr. Herschel's Telescope
8. Of Telescopes
9. Plain Trigonometry
10. Spherical Trigonometry
11. The Solar System
12. The Eclipses & Changes of the Moon
13. The Eclipse at large
14. A Map of the World in Two Hemispheres
15. A Map of Europe
16. A Map of Asia
17. A Map of Africa
18. A Map of N. America
19. A Map of S. America
20. Of Mechanics
21. Of Electricity
22. Of Pneumatics
23. Of Hydrostatics
24. Of Hydraulics
25. Twelve Heads for Drawing
26. Twenty Human Figures

"This certainly is a useful and cheap Work: the modern Improvements on each Subject are introduced; and we have no Scruple in giving it our general Recommendation."—*Vide British Critic, November*, 1802.

Just published No. I, price 2s. 6d. to be completed in Thirty Numbers, the Whole embellished with One Hundred new Plates, illustrative of the Process of Vegetation, the Sexual System, &c. from original Drawings, made under the Author's direction, by EDWARDS, engraved by SANSOM, and correctly coloured from Nature.

A COMPLETE COURSE
OF
LECTURES ON BOTANY,

AS DELIVERED IN THE
BOTANIC GARDEN AT LAMBETH,

By the late WILLIAM CURTIS, F. L. S.

Demonstrator of Botany to the Company of Apothecaries, Author of the Botanical Magazine, of the Flora Londinensis, &c. &c.

SECOND EDITION, Arranged from the Manuscripts in the possession of his Son-in-Law, SAMUEL CURTIS, Florist, Walworth; to which is now added, A LIFE OF THE AUTHOR, by DR. THORNTON.

These Lectures were read by the Author, to his Pupils, at the Botanic Garden, and were intended by him to have formed an accompaniment to the Botanical Magazine, to which they are peculiarly adapted, treating on the Science of Botany at large, in the same simplicity of language for which the Magazine is so universally admired. The Introductory Lecture contains much useful information; on preserving Specimens of Plants, taking Impressions of them in an expeditious and simple manner, and particular directions for the more easy attainment of Botanical Knowledge. The succeeding Lecture contains entertaining information on the perceptibility of Plants, and their comparison with Animals; a curious subject, hitherto but little treated on. The following Lectures trace up the whole Science of Botany, avoiding a frequent repetition of technical terms, which, though in a certain degree necessary, are far from captivating, and often weary the young beginner in the pursuit of this elegant, useful, and entertaining Science.

A BOTANICAL DICTIONARY,

Or, ELEMENTS of SYSTEMATIC & PHILOSOPHICAL BOTANY.

BY COLIN MILNE, L. L. D.

Author of the Institutes of Botany, and Habitations of English Plants.

THIRD EDITION, revised, corrected, and very considerably enlarged.

This Dictionary has long been the admiration of Europe, and is quoted as of the first authority, by all the most eminent Writers, both in this Country and abroad, and recommended by the most eminent Professors and Teachers of Botany, as containing an excellent Fund of Botanical Instruction necessary to be known by every person who is cultivating that useful and agreeable Science.

In one large Volume, Octavo, embellished with Twenty-five new Plates, accurately drawn from Nature, by EDWARDS, and engraved by SANSOM, price 1l. 1s. in Boards, or 1l. 16s. with the Plates beautifully Coloured.

PRACTICAL OBSERVATIONS on the BRITISH GRASSES,

Containing accurate figures of the most approved Grasses for meadow and pasture Land; hints for the improvement and laying down of Land to the best advantage, accompanied with a descriptive Catalogue of all the British Grasses,

By the late WILLIAM CURTIS.

To which is now added, A short account of the cause of the Diseases in Corn, called by Farmers the Blight, the Mildew, and the Rust:

BY SIR JOSEPH BANKS, BART.

Illustrated with plates, Price 5s. or beautifully coloured, 7s. 6d.

[*Squire, Printer, Barnard's-Inn-Court.*

'Let no one, however, think that we wish to have it understood that these new enjoyments were in themselves a benefit. The real blessings hence derived consisted in the redoubled industry and exertion, the new movement which agitated humanity, the communication thus established between one people and another, the agreeable change of manners, and the progress of knowlege, which became extended and improved. The new wants, of which men contracted the habit, engaged them in a new employment of their powers; for they very soon perceived that exertion was necessary to enjoyment. They did not first calculate what would return them the greatest profit; they did not embarrass themselves with reckoning the quantity of their money, and by a short calculation the balance of their commerce: but they forced themselves to produce articles of exchange; and very soon the products of the industry of Italy, France, the Low Countries, and Germany, were brought to market in the East. In one word, the people were left to work for themselves, and they knew how to turn their labour to their advantage: for it may be laid down as a general maxim, that the people never do better than when they are left to do for themselves.'

This is a very sound principle; and it has often been remarked that governments always cause mischief when they interfere either with religion or with trade.

The last section of this essay, intended as a solution of that part of the question which respects the influence of the Crusades on *the progress of science and literature in Europe*, is less detailed than the preceding portions of the work: but, though M. HEEREN confesses that the half barbarian-crusaders did not seek the East with any views of intellectual improvement, and laments their destruction of the fine library of Constantinople, together with the rare monuments of science and of the arts, by the repeated conflagrations which they inflicted on that imperial city, (a loss irreparable to letters, and doubly grievous when the library of Alexandria was no more,) he nevertheless endeavours to give a favourable representation of the general result. He instances the culture of Greek literature, of philosophy, and of medicine, and especially of geography, history, and poetry, in consequence of these holy wars. We could have wished that he had bestowed more labour on the conclusion of his inquiry: but we must do him the justice to confess that, on the whole, we have perused his essay with much satisfaction; and that it is not unworthy of a place on the same shelf with the treatise by M. *Villers* on the Reformation of Luther.

ART.

ART. III. *De l'Influence d'une grande Revolution*, &c.; *i. e.* On the Influence of a Great Revolution over Commerce, Agriculture, and the Arts. A discourse crowned by the Academy of Lyons, and dedicated to His Majesty the King of Holland. By P. LABOULINIERE, Principal Secretary to the Prefecture of the Department of the Upper Pyrénées. 8vo. pp. 312. Hague. 1808. Imported by Dulau and Co.

THE writer, who undertakes to describe the influence of a Revolution on the state of civil society, attempts a very difficult task. He ought to possess a full and accurate knowlege of history, an intimate acquaintance with the human mind, and a capacity of drawing, from these sources, profound and comprehensive conclusions. To give interest to so difficult a subject requires also no small degree of facility and skill in composition; as well as a length of time in application, which is seldom compatible with attention to other pursuits. Of these various requisites, a knowledge of history is perhaps the only one which M. LABOULINIERE sufficiently possesses. His official duties occupy, he informs us, a considerable portion of his time, and permitted him to allot only three months to the composition of this discourse. Although we have reason to believe that, like Cicero's oration for Milo, this essay sees the light in a more finished state than that in which it was first produced, it still bears many marks of a crude and ill-digested performance. The reasoning is neither well arranged nor sufficiently subdivided; the choice of words is not accurate; the sentences are long and complicated; and the reader is deprived of the aid of a table of contents throughout the most difficult part of the book, in which it is hardly possible for memory to supply the defect. Still, however, the author s intitled to praise for the extent of his erudition and the liberality of his views; and though the execution is defective, the spirit and tendency of the work have a claim to approbation.

Mons. LABOULINIERE divides his essay into three parts; the first of which is a history of the origin and progress of civilization, as connected with the progress of industry; the second, an account of the effects of a revolution on the state of society; and the third, a series of historical comments in support of his mode of reasoning. He has avoided all attempts to paint the shock of the revolutionary crisis, and has confined his observations to the calm which succeeds the storm. To endeavour to guide a nation during the continuance of the ferment would be a fruitless effort; events must have their course, and must be left, in a great measure, to work their own cure: it is only after the tempest has subsided, that the voice of instruction can be heard.

The

The author remarks, (page 59,) in regard to the plan of his essay, that

'The question proposed may be considered under two points of view; either as restrained to one particular revolution, or as general, and applicable to all times and places. The former would be attended, in the discussion of facts, with a degree of precision of which the latter is scarcely capable; and I acknowlege that this accordingly was the point of view in which I first thought of treating it: but I have since judged it advisable to adopt the latter plan, and to lay down principles which, by their general nature, have a reference to all places and periods. Without adverting, then, to any particular country, or to any revolution of which it may have been the theatre, I shall treat of the means which *every* government may employ to advance agriculture, commerce, and the arts, whenever the state of the public mind is favourable to these philanthropic views.'

He then proceeds as follows:

'The most effectual means of favouring the progress of industry are, first, liberty, which calls forth the exercise of all human faculties; next, equality in law, which confers complete and entire security; and thirdly, justice on the part of government. If, under these circumstances, governments are really desirous to turn to account the disposition of their subjects, we know not any prodigy in the way of public improvement which they may not perform. The existence of a great man at the head of a government is in itself a revolution; which stamps an energy on the surrounding characters, and paves the way for the most beneficial changes. It deserves to be remarked that improvements are promoted less by action on the part of the ruler, than by a free permission to act granted to the people; and that regulating enactments are less wanted than a well secured independence. Let government avoid intermeddling with the interior of families, who will subsist without its interference, and who require nothing at its hands but protection and tranquillity. Rulers of nations! only remove the obstacles to the display of human industry, and you will soon perceive it take the most advantageous direction. If, farther, we provide a system of education fitted to enlighten mankind, to make them comprehend the dignity of their nature, and to banish pernicious superstitions; if we reward the authors of useful discoveries, and revere those men who are truly great; we shall have done all in our power for the promotion of industry, and shall find ourselves amply rewarded by the rapidity of its progress.'

After some more general arguments of this kind, the writer lays down a principle for the fundamental institutions of a well-governed state. He remarks that a political society can have no other aim than the advantage of the whole through the medium of the advantage of each individual; and that such must be the motive for establishing a government. It is of consequence, therefore, to make a distinction between the government and the state; a distinction which is not sufficiently observed by political writers. A state may be republican, though

though the form of government be monarchical, if we admit *Rousseau*'s definition of a republic, namely "that it is that system under which the rights of all are defined, and the free exercise of these rights is secured." In this way, and in this way alone, there exists a *res publica*, a common interest. Every other system is more or less a departure from this community of interest. If a particular class alone enjoys a free exercise of rights, the state is *aristocratical*; if one person alone enjoy this, the state is *despotic*. The attachment of a people to their government will naturally be greater or less, in porportion as this community of interest is possessed; and the political virtue, that has been characteristic of republics, will very speedily arise in any country to which this community of right shall be extended.—This discovery, that a state may enjoy liberty under a monarchical form of government, is very convenient for the author; who is evidently a sincere advocate for freedom, but, amid all his zeal, does not forget that he holds a place under *Bonaparte*.

M. Laboulinière's sentiments on the principles of commercial intercourse, between nation and nation, are just and liberal. He considers that spirit of rivalship, which creates a long list of exclusions and prohibitions, as disadvantageous to all parties. Similar obstacles to intercourse formerly subsisted between the different counties of the same kingdom: but they have been abolished; and experience has shewn the good effects of an unrestrained communication. A correspondent benefit would ensue to those nations which might abrogate the restrictions on their respective imports and exports. Different nations, like different provinces, have particular branches of commerce in which they are fitted to excel; and it is idle to aim at success in every branch, because each country has its inherent advantages which bid defiance to foreign competition. Nature has parcelled out her gifts in this manner, to establish among mankind a community of wants and enjoyments, and to inspire a fraternal feeling among us.

The true method, repeats the author, to create patriotism in a people is to grant them the free exercise of their industry. The heroism common in republics has no other source than this. It would arise everywhere under a similar system; everywhere men will be active, intrepid, and industrious, if the fruits of their labour are insured to them.

In the first part of this Essay, namely the account of the progress of civilization, much unnecessary argument is employed to prove what in reality requires no proof, that a civil state of society is preferable to the savage state. The author has studied *Rousseau*'s works, and is desirous of shewing that

he can detect error in that popular writer. The third division of the essay, the historical illustrations, is the best arranged part of the book, and evinces that, as far as the preliminary requisite of historical knowlege was concerned, Mr. LABOULINIERE was not inadequately prepared for his task.

In the second part of the essay, (from page 52 to 110,) the influence of a Revolution on civilization is discussed. The extracts which we have given are taken from this part, and will serve to convey an idea of the *spirit* in which it is written. To go farther than this, and to attempt an analysis of the author's principles, would, we apprehend, be impractiable, since they do not seem to have existed in a distinct shape in his own mind. By relinquishing all allusion to the French Revolution, and venturing to discuss the subject on general views, he trode on very difficult ground; over which the profound philosopher alone can travel with advantage. All that we can communicate to our readers, therefore, as useful in this portion of the work, are the two general conclusions at which the writer arrives; — the first, already explained, is that agriculture, commerce, and the arts flourish in a state in proportion as that state enjoys freedom; — the second, that the mode, in which a revolution operates beneficially, is in the overthrow of antient prejudices, and in enabling governments to introduce bold and extensive improvements into the national system.

The academicians of Lyons, in assigning the prize to this essay, lay particular stress on the importance of political freedom. This expression of their feelings is one proof among many, which have been communicated to us, that the more enlightened part of the French nation are not duped by the artifices of *Bonaparte*; nor disposed permanently to resign, in favour of him and his family, the dear-bought advantages of the Revolution.—So far, we think, the gentlemen of Lyons are in the right: but in another passage of their report, in which they encroach on our department, and act the part of critics, we are less disposed to agree with them. They pronounce M. LABOULINIERE's style to be "natural, clear, and precise, but interspersed with very few figures." Now to us it appears rather the reverse of clearness and precision; and so far from being deficient in figurative language, it abounds with apostrophe, which, to our Northern imaginations, seems a rather bold figure for prose composition.

It will be inferred, from our remarks, that we consider this work as by no means a complete disquisition on the influence of a Revolution on Civil Society. The subject is of such great importance to the happiness of mankind, and so worthy of the

the talents of a first-rate writer, that it would afford us much pleasure to learn that it had attracted the attention of some author of celebrity.

ART. IV. *Voyage dans le Tyrol*, &c; *i. e.* A Tour in the Tyrol, to the Salt-mines of Salzburg and of Reichenhall, and through Part of Bavaria. By the *Chevalier* DE BRAY, Privy Counsellor of State to H. M. the King of Bavaria, &c. 12mo. pp. 254. Paris. 1808. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 5s. sewed.

AMONG the Alpine regions of Europe, the Tyrol stands pre-eminent for the rich variety of its picturesque scenery. Swisserland, it is true, presents objects that are more stupendous: but, if the masses are more vast, the outline is not so broken, nor are the most impressive features of landscape so much blended and so fully brought within the range of the eye, as in the Tyrolean district. Here the traveller who delights in the union of the sublime and the beautiful is sure to receive the highest gratification: here mountains and defiles of the boldest character, *glaciers*, cataracts, and lakes of the most singular kind, with woods and valleys of a peculiar physiognomy, constitute a *tout ensemble*, within the scope also of distinct vision, which overwhelms the beholder with such impressions and feelings as no words can express. To the striking grandeur of the scenery is added a peculiarity of character in the inhabitants; who possess all the manly virtues of mountaineers; who are hardy, frugal, and industrious; who are at once ingenious, brave, and superstitious; and who cherish an ardent love of liberty, and the most enthusiastic attachment to their native hills.

In the Tyrol, then, nature and man both urge the most forcible claims to the attention of the philosopher, and open an ample fund from which he can richly repay himself. Often, therefore, as we have been summoned by travellers to repeat this journey, we are never sorry to receive a fresh invitation. By the account which the French editor gives of the work of M. DE BRAY, we were induced to expect much gratification from it; though the small size and humble appearance of the volume did not seem to justify so high an eulogy on the author, as 'that he had in his account omitted nothing, that he had said every thing in a few words, and said every thing well.' Yet, notwithstanding this declaration, by which we were prepared for something worth reading, we did not enter on the perusal of this little book with prepossessions that were fatal to the result. M. DE BRAY has indeed condensed much information and amusement in a very narrow space,

and has afforded a more distinct view of the Tyrol than is to be found in much larger and more pompous volumes. His account of the salt-mines and salt-works at Salzburg and at Reichenhall is so perspicuous, that the reader clearly apprehends the manner in which the salt is found embodied in the bowels of the earth, the mode in which the mines are worked, and the different processes employed for extracting the pure salt and fitting it for use. Human ingenuity, availing itself of the energies of nature, abridges human industry, and, by a judicious application of the mechanical powers, makes machinery play the part of hands and feet. At Reichenhall this truth is amply exemplified; where a common Bavarian carpenter, (another Brindley,) without education, has planned and constructed a complete piece of machinery, by which water is raised and distributed, saw-mills and forges are worked with precision, and the several articles necessary in the manufacture of salt are produced. The different galleries in these stupendous salt-mines are described by the Chevalier, both as to the effect of these subterraneous excavations on the mind of the traveller who explores them, and as to the energy of the people who are employed in them.

'The appearance of the interior of a mine is very striking. When we were conducted into it, the galleries were illuminated, and the eye could not reach to the end of these long subterranean alleys, which seemed to be the avenues of some temple consecrated to the infernal deities.—Nothing is more beautiful and impressive than the appearance of these vast caverns, and of the commodious galleries in which we pass without danger along them; where on all sides we are struck with the adventurous spirit and industry of the human race; where we observe the miners wandering about like shadows, or working like the Cyclops; where all the elements are employed to snatch from nature treasures which appear to be inexhaustible; where the thunder occasioned by the blowing up of the rocks, the deafening noise of the waters which rush along the subterraneous canals, the profound silence which succeeds the most terrific explosions, the dim light of the flambeaux, and the glitter of the crystals of salt reflecting the light; where in short, the *tout ensemble* forms a magic scene which at once captivates the imagination and promotes reflection.—In the chambers where they blow up the rock with gunpowder, round the fosse which has been excavated is carried a gallery from which the bottom cannot be perceived. Ten mines had now been charged, and the lights were extinguished before the blast was made. It is impossible to describe the effect of this explosion, of that sombre light which preceeds it, of the subterranean thunder which follows it, and of the long and powerful shakes which are communicated to the side walls of these dark caverns, the roofs of which tremble and vibrate like the covering of some enormous drum.—Here all is bustle, activity, and motion. As we pass through the long galleries, for the most part magnificently vaulted, we see enormous levers, pistons, and the long branches

of

of the pumps; vast cylinders in motion; and water rapidly flowing in long troughs of wood, and carried off by under-ground drains. Everywhere we observe the conduits of the saline waters leading to one common reservoir, though separated in many instances, on account of the different qualities of the brine: to be thence forced up by a pump to reservoirs above, where they undergo other operations.—We seem here to be suddenly initiated into the secrets of those great laws of motion which govern the world, and admitted to contemplate the action of those immense wheels which move the machine of the universe.'

Many other observations are made on the properties, mode of working, and profits of these stupendous salt-mines; which we must refrain from transcribing, in order to attend the Chevalier in his farther rambles when he quits the shades and gains this upper world. Amusing as is his account of this region of darkness, we cannot say that it so highly pleases us as some of his above-ground pictures.

No sooner does the traveller emerge into day, than he takes us into an eminently romantic country; for not even Swisserland presents any thing more curious or attractive than the country of Salzburg, that of Berchtesgaden, and the mountainous part of Bavaria. At a small distance from Berchtesgaden, is a celebrated lake, which the tourist in course visits, and the scenery of which he has endeavoured to pourtray in description. Whether any verbal painting can convey an adequate idea of the lake itself, and of the assemblage of wonders which surround it, may be doubted: but the detail of M. De Bray would certainly furnish the landscape-painter with materials for a very sublime composition. Our readers shall see the picture of the lake of Kœnigssée, or St. Barthélemy, as it is sketched in the small volume before us:

'I do not believe that a lake exists which is so wonderfully shut in as that of Kœnigssée. Immense mountains, running up to a point, inclose it on every side; while their bases reach to the bottom of the waters, whose gloomy though pure surface reflects their lofty summits. The declivity of these eternal walls is so sharp, that it is impossible to carry a walk round on the borders of the lake. On all parts to the right, its shores are inaccessible. That side, washed by torrents of rain and snow, produces only a few stunted pines and some slender herbage. The eastern side is less bold and more wooded, but excessively steep, and can be ascended only by men who are accustomed to climb mountains and to brave the sight of their precipices. Often from the middle of the lake we observe some *Chamois* running and skipping about; for nothing can equal the agility and nimbleness of these animals, which leap the sharpest rocks, and seem to hover over their summits. The most intrepid hunter with difficulty pursues them into their formidable retreats; and sometimes, when hard-pressed, they will throw themselves from a great height into the

water

ster of the lake, there encountering other enemies who follow them in small boats, when they endeavour to escape by swimming.

'The two enormous walls, which nature has placed on the two sides of this lake, so completely confine it as to cause an invariable calm and freshness to prevail. The sun can only for a few hours warm its waters, and their excessive depth contributes also to maintain a coldness which is injurious to the propagation of fish. Many streams precipitate themselves from the top of the mountains, falling in cascades almost perpendicular into the lake, which at a distance resemble long ribbands of silver playing over masses of verdure. One of these cascades falls from an elevation of more than 300 feet. Nothing, however, can equal the beauty of that which we discover above the peninsula of St. Barthélemy. It is formed by a stream of which the current is dammed up by a sluice, in order to float down the wood which is felled in the mountains. The spectator places himself on a bank directly opposite to the spot at which the torrent falls into the lake. The usual flow of water forms a very beautiful spectacle: but, at a given signal, when the sluices are opened, we perceive above the tops of the highest trees a frightful body of white foam, like snow, pushing irresistibly forwards. It bounds, it precipitates itself in murmurs, it divides, it dashes in a thousand different forms on the rocks which oppose its course, and falls from a perpendicular height of 240 feet into the vast depth of the Kœnigsée.—In the season for felling timber, the workmen collect whole forests in the basins which are above the sluices; and, as soon as these are opened, the wood, thus formed into masses, is carried down by the torrent, descending with a horrible crash, and describing vast parabolas as they are thrown at a distance into the water of the lake. At the moment when this mass precipitates itself, a gloomy murmur is heard, the forest appears agitated by a sudden tempest, the trees hang their humid heads, and a terrible storm seems to be approaching. In fact, as soon as the torrent has reached the Kœnigsée, a violent rumbling wind scatters every thing around it; and the waters of the lake are so strongly agitated, that it would be dangerous to be near the place of its fall. At the distance of more than 200 toises, or 400 yards, our boat was violently shaken, we were inundated with a humid dust, and felt a sudden cold: but the astonishment excited by so beautiful a spectacle engrossed every other faculty, and we could not remove our eyes from so magnificent a picture, which was enlarged in the imagination. Here let us listen with rapture to that sublime voice, which nature makes heard only in deserts and vast solitudes.

'The convent of St. Barthélemy is indeed the only edifice to be seen in this grand and majestic amphitheatre; and its solitary position seems to add to the reflective incitements of the spot, and to speak powerfully to the mind of the spectator. I know not by what melancholy disposition I then painted to myself the pious recluses rambling on these contemplative shores: but I transported myself in idea to this holy retreat, and traversed these uninhabited rocks and shores, where the noise of waters and of winds brings to remembrance a tumultuous and agitated life. Here all is concentrated in one single

idea. The immensity of nature typifies the eternity of its Author. Man alone, in the midst of such grand objects, blushes for a moment at his insignificance: but, proud to feel in himself the faculty of admiring them, he soon launches into the highest regions of thought. Thus he figures to himself a world still more grand, and pictures still more magnificent, which, a secret voice whispers to him, he shall be called one day to enjoy. Now, all that was before astonishing sinks in his estimation, and this sole thought remains, that God is greater than all the objects with which we are surrounded.'

The author apologizes for the warm enthusiasm of these reflections: but scenery such as he has delineated cannot be surveyed without strong emotion; and we should not envy the *temperament* of that man who could contemplate nature in its utmost sublimity, without ascending in thought to the throne of Nature's God. Such a spot as the lake of Koenigssée would be a bad closet for an atheist.

Quitting Berchtesgaden, the tourist proceeds to Traunstein and to Rosenheim, between which places is the largest lake in Bavaria, called Chiemsee, 20 leagues round; and, crossing the Inn, he stays a few days at Munich.

Chapter II. includes a tour to the upper Iser, and into the county of Werdenfels. Among other notices, it contains an enumeration of the beautiful alpine plants which are to be found in the Tyrol. Ascending the high mountains, M. De Bray gives a sketch of the landscape from their summits; and, in speaking of the peasantry who inhabit them, he does not forget to inform us how much their happiness is promoted by the pure passion of love.

In the third chapter, we are presented with various details on statistics, geography, and morals, chiefly relative to the Tyrol. These, however honourable to the Tyrolean character, afford no inviting account of the country as a place of permanent residence. A wild and romantic region is not productive. The people of the Tyrol are scantily supplied: in the elevated vallies, the prevalence of cold obstructs vegetation; and only by industry and temporary emigrations, the inhabitants obtain a supply of necessaries; yet they love their country, never entirely quit it, and have high ideas of liberty. Having great command of water, the Tyrolese avail themselves of this circumstance in the erection of mills, which are usual appendages to the cottages; and to such an extent is machinery carried, that an instance is given of a cradle being rocked by a rope connected with one of these mills. We should be betrayed into an immoderate length, were we to copy the traits of character contained in this part of the work; and we can only state from it that the Tyrol, not including the Voralberg, contains 480 square

square miles, and that the population was estimated in 1801 (the time of this excursion) at 760,000.

We are conducted, in the last chapter of this volume, through the largest portion of the Tyrol, from Mittenwalde to Zirl, Inspruck, Brenner, Sterzingen, and Brixen, to Bolzano or Botzen. After having retraced the same route, M. De Bray visits a portion of Bavaria, in the vicinity of Munich, of which he affords the most pleasing description; comparing the country from Weilheim to Stahremberg, to our Blenheim park and Richmond. Nothing, indeed, appears to escape his observation which is worthy of notice, and we seem to accompany him as he proceeds. He speaks of the physiognomy of the Tyroleans as having an expression of something gay and open, and as displaying a character strongly marked. Of Inspruck, the capital, which is surrounded on all sides by immense mountains, he states that 'it contains some noblesse, but few people of fortune. The noblesse of the Tyrol have little wealth, and are much in debt. The nature of the country in some measure excludes great possessions.' The inns, however, are reported to be tolerable, and the reception of the traveller pleasant. We are advised not to overlook the brilliant glacier of Ferner, and other striking objects. Through the whole route such wonders present themselves, that it is impossible for the reader not to envy the Chevalier the pleasure of this excursion, and to wish that his account had been more minute: but brevity is a more pardonable and less frequent fault than dull prolixity.

Art. V. *Dictionnaire raisonné des Onomatopées Françaises,* &c.; *i. e.* An explanatory Dictionary of French Words formed by Onomatopœa; by Charles Nodier. Adopted by the Committee of Public Instruction, for the Libraries of the Lyceums. 8vo. pp. 220. Paris. 1808.

It is natural that a considerable part of every language, in its infancy, should be formed by the process called *Onomatopœa;* which signifies, according to the modern usage, though not in the original meaning of that compound phrase, the imitation of things by the words expressing them: but, as the machinery of language becomes more complicated, its rules and usages entirely arbitrary, and its abstractions infinitely multiplied, the new terms which are from time to time introduced will probably have more frequent reference to the existing nomenclature, with which all are conversant in nearly an equal degree, than to any supposed agreement between the sound and the sense, which, though founded in nature, must be always

loose and uncertain, and subject to incessant variations, from the different manner in which the senses of different persons are likely to be affected by external objects. Some classes of words, however, which are formed on the principle of imitation, can scarcely fail to stand their ground, in spite of every change; as when they are borrowed from the first and simplest exclamations of children,—from the more peculiar cries of animals,—and from the striking phænomena of nature, which affect the hearing. Thus, the names descriptive of the parental relation are almost universally the same; the cock, the owl, and the cuckoo, in most of the European tongues, have appellations which echo to their screams; while the *torrent thunders* down from the mountains in sounds corresponding to its *stunning murmurs*. Associations like these appear to be almost unavoidable: but many others of a more accidental nature, and which are connected by a slighter tie, are easily displaced by the various causes that influence the formation of languages. Thus, in French, the imitative power of the verb *écraser* (to express the *crash* that accompanies a *break* or *fracture*) is nearly lost in its synonyme *casser*; the *grating* of the Latin *serra* is not discernible in the French *scie*, or the English *saw*; and the *gurgling* or *gurgling* of liquor poured out of a bottle, in French *glouglou*, has no antitype in our generally received modern word, *to decant*. Again, it may be observed that, as the imitation performed by pronouncing a word is momentary, different parts of a successive operation will be imitated by different words. *Ecracher* expresses the same idea as *to spit*: but the former relates to the collecting of the saliva, and the latter to its extrusion:—*tousser* is synonimous with *to cough*, but these two words are derived from two different modes of the same action:—while it is clear that all the four words fall strictly within the description of *Onomatopœa*.

M. Nodier has executed the humble but, he hopes, not useless task of arranging the several French words which owe their existence to the principle above explained. We are rather surprised at finding them so numerous; since, after all justifiable deductions on the score of fanciful analogies and overstrained ingenuity, the soberest reader will hardly deny that a very large majority of the words noticed by this author fairly belong to his subject. The whole number is considerably above four hundred; and it has seldom fallen to our lot to examine an etymological system founded on a surer basis, or conducted in a more reasonable manner. Without endeavouring, like the ingenious Mr. Whiter, to involve metaphysical abstractions in elementary sounds, and to endow the unconscious vowels and consonants with moral properties, he traces all imitation to the relation subsisting

subsisting between certain sounds and our sensations; those in particular that are appropriate to the hearing, to which all speech is addressed, and by which all the spoken signs of objects are transmitted. 'Sounds cannot of themselves express the sensations of sight, of taste, of the touch, of the smell: but these sensations may be compared to a certain point with those of hearing, and manifested by their assistance;' and by metaphors the most natural and easy*, (for they abound in the primitive languages and in the prattling of children,) terms peculiar to one sense are made subservient to an expression of the effects created by others. Some words will be produced by a great variety of analogies, of which the several combinations may exercise the curiosity of the student; while their origin, lost in remote antiquity, baffles his pursuit.

Exceptions to the author's rational style of inquiry may certainly be detected: but they occur generally in the notes or in the preface. In one of the former he acquaints his readers that *sag*, the root of a whole forest of luxuriant branches, in *its proper sense* represents an *arrow*. Hence he deduces the verb *to sack*, because cities that are sacked have been first taken by means of arrows, or *sags*. Hence also *sanguis*, because blood flows from wounds made by arrows. Hence too *sagax*, discerning, because the sight *darts* its rays with the rapidity of an arrow.—Is not this extravagant? Yet it is less so than the notion that ὄφις, the Greek word for a *snake*, is derived from the visible resemblance of the letter Φ to the folds of that reptile; or the derivation of the Ψ from the form of a bow and arrow; and the deduction of *teat* and *téton* from the Greek *theta*, of which the character, Θ, is said to be a perfect portrait of the human breast and nipple. Indeed, we are not without our fears for this poor gentlemen's sanity, when he regularly undertakes the great work which he obscurely promises, on hieroglyphics and alphabetical characters. Few subjects can present greater stumbling blocks to learning and ingenuity.

The same volume, which contains the extraordinary positions here quoted, expresses great astonishment at some of the mistakes committed by *Menage* and Count *de Gebelin*; exposes with humour the absurdity of contracting *et* from *silentium tene*; and laughs at the descent of Mademoiselle *Poupée* (the French name for a doll) from the Empress Poppæa. Indeed, we have often observed that etymologists are most severe in discerning the

* This is singularly exemplified in Locke's blind man, who likened scarlet to the sound of a trumpet; and in *Massieu*, the celebrated deaf and dumb pupil of *Sicard*, who, on the contrary, could form no notion of that animating sound, but such as was analogous to a scarlet colour.

moat in a brother's eye, when the beam is most conspicuous in their own:—a consideration which deters us from announcing certain discoveries that seem to have occurred to ourselves in examining M. NODIER's work.

Let us, however, again acknowlege that these deviations from good sense are rare, and that the greater part of this dictionary is both reasonable and useful. We ought likewise to add that the writer's general observations on literature are in a very sensible strain, and will be perused with satisfaction.—It is difficult to translate any extract from pages which are exclusively and critically conversant with the French idiom: but we are strongly tempted to present our readers with at least a prose version of a song of old *Ronsard*, who was once called the prince of poets, but is now completely despised. His address to the Lark is one of the few of his compositions that are capable of giving pleasure to a modern Frenchman, and it is cited by the present writer to illustrate the words *turlut*; a species of lark so called from its note, and *tire-lire*, which imitates that note, like Shakspeare's *tirra-lirra*.

'O Lark, how I envy thy happy life, who singest of love from the peep of dawn, shaking off in the air the dew in which thy wings are bathed! Before Phœbus is risen, thou raisest thy body, all washed, to wipe it in the clouds. Trembling on thy little wing, and rising by short bounds, thou utterest in the air such sweet melodies, composed of thy *tirra lirra*, that not a lover can hear thee without wishing to become such a bird as thou art. When thy chaunt has long amused thee, thou droppest like a ball of thread, which a young maiden in the evening lets fall from her distaff, when she sleeps by the fire side, sinking her ear upon her shoulder; or when, in the day time, spinning, she sees her lover approach unexpected, and bashfully casts down her eyes, while the thread which she has wound falls from her hand, and rolls far away untwisted at her feet.'

M. NODIER observes that this picture is truly in the antique taste, and one of the most graceful that can be imagined. Perhaps some of our readers may deem the whole song worth translating into verse.

We are happy to learn that a new Dictionary is meditated by the literary class of the French Institute. The Encyclopædia of words, as of sciences, ought to be periodically renewed, according to the improvements of art, and the fluctuations produced by time.

ART. VI. *Correspondance inédite de Madame* DU DEFFAND, &c; *i. e.* The hitherto unpublished Correspondence of Madame DU DEFFAND with *D'Alembert*, *Montesquieu*, the President *Hénault*, the Dutchess *du Maine*, Mesdames *de Choiseul* and *de Staal*, the Marquis *d'Argens*, the Chevalier *d'Aydie*, &c. 3 vols. 12mo. Paris. Reprinted in London by Colburn. Price 15*s*.

ART. VII. *Lettres de Mademoiselle* DE L'ESPINASSE, &c.; *i. e.* Letters of Mademoiselle DE L'ESPINASSE, written from the Year 1773 to 1776. With two Chapters by the same Author, after the Manner of Sterne's Sentimental Journey. 2 vols. 12mo. Paris. Re-printed in London by Deconchy. Price 15*s*.

THE first half of the eighteenth century might be called the age of *Memoirs*; and the latter may be distinguished by that of *Letters*, or, to prevent mistakes, of *Epistles*. We hope that the nineteenth century will unite these two methods of recording a life and developing a character, for which purpose either of them singly appears to us insufficient: but, in the mean time, let us be thankful for the entertainment which may be derived from the correspondence of persons who were conspicuous for rank, wit, cultivated understanding, literary influence, and for that extensive acquaintance with eminent persons in every part of Europe, which those advantages commanded in the state of politics that prevailed within the memory of many among us.

When Paris was indisputably the capital of the literary world, on account of the universality of the French language, and its own central situation on the continent, (to say nothing of the admirable variety of talents which illustrated its society,) the two ladies, whose epistolary works lie before us, were the boast of that metropolis. Their *dîners*, their *soirées*, and their *soupers*, were crowded with all that was brilliant and accomplished, not more among their countrymen, than among those foreigners who wished to acquire the true polish of travelling.

The *Marquise* DU DEFFAND was all point and vivacity, all acuteness and good sense. Her remarks were contemplated for their depth of reflection, and repeated for their felicity of phrase. The extraordinary powers of her conversation, in attracting and fixing the minds of her hearers, are equally manifested by the daubing panegyrics of some of her admirers and the well-turned compliments of others. As a companion, she appears not to have been more fascinating in a first interview, than sure of confirming her influence in proportion to the length of the intimacy. To the great names of her devoted correspondents announced in the title-page, may be added those of *Bernstorff*, *Scheffer*, and *Voltaire*; among our own countrymen, the Earls of Bath (Pulteney), Holdernesse, and

Bulkely, with probably many others whose letters have accidentally perished; and the highly respected Lord Cornbury, during his long sojourn at Paris, appears to have enjoyed her friendship. This lady retained her empire over the minds of the most enlightened of mankind for many years, and died in 1780 at the age of eighty-four. Though deprived of the blessing of sight during the last thirty years of her life, her powers of amusing and the charms of her conversation underwent no diminution from that afflicting circumstance. Yet no person living was ever less *amiable*;—perfectly *aimable*, indeed, in the modern sense of that epithet, (which is applied by Frenchmen exclusively to those who are endowed with talents for pleasing in company, and with which they sometimes close an abstract of the most unprincipled, savage, and perfidious character,) but destitute of all the essential qualities which give happiness to domestic society, and sacredness to confidential friendship. A short notice of her life details a few anecdotes, which place beyond a doubt the possibility of uniting the least estimable and the most agreeable traits.

De La Harpe, speaking of her, observed that it was difficult to have less sensibility and more selfishness. M. *de Pont-de-Veyle*, who lived with her many years, had nearly the same character; and this little dialogue is said to have one day passed between them: "*Pont-de-Veyle*, since we have known each other, there has never been a moment's interruption to our friendship."—"No, Madam."—"May not this be because we have not the least regard for each other?"—"I think it is very likely, Madam." This total absence of hypocrisy is perhaps intitled to some praise, among a people who are so fond of the cant of sensibility. When *Pont-de-Veyle* died, *la Harpe* tells us that his dear female friend came to sup in a large company, where every one consoled her for her loss. "Alas!" said she, "he died at six o'clock; otherwise, you would not have seen me here." These were her very words, and she supped as usual, that is extremely well, for she was a great *gourmande*; and it seems that, with all the infirmities of age upon her, the *petit soupers* were not discontinued to the last. "Let me have good cheer," said she to her cook, "I feel the want of company more than ever."

Such was the heart of this celebrated woman: but her mind was of the highest order. We only regret that these volumes contain so few of its productions, and are so much occupied by the multifarious and ill-arranged letters of the numerous persons with whom her pen preserved her acquaintance. We do not think that a twentieth part of their contents are her composition; and the larger half of those which are written by

her

her is the less interesting from being a correspondence purely of a private nature, addressed to the President *Hénault*, during a month's absence at a watering-place, to which she betook herself, in the language of the President, "*pour une grossesse.*" This correspondence is as old as 1742, and furnishes scarcely a single extract by which we can hope to convey much amusement, unless it may be drawn from the whimsical complaints made by the Marquise against her humble companion, Madame *Pequigni*:

"Let us come to a much more interesting subject, I mean my companion. O my God! how she disgusts me! she is positively mad; she has no stated hours for her meals; she breakfasted at Gisors at eight on cold veal, afterward had a sop in the pan, then large biscuits, &c. &c. She pretends to have imagination, and to see every thing under a peculiar aspect; and, having no original ideas, she makes up for them by whimsical expressions, under the pretext of being perfectly natural. She tells me of all her fancies, in assuring me that she consults only my convenience, but I am afraid of becoming *her* humble companion.—She tried just now to establish herself in my apartment, to take her meals: but I told her that I was going to write, and begged her to inform Madame *Laroche* when she would eat, what she would eat, and where she would eat, and said that I expected the same liberty.

"She made me sit at table with her to day *tête-à-tête* for full an hour and a quarter to see her pick, suck, and eat all that she at first refused: she is insupportable; I tell you so for the last time, for I will not permit myself to speak of her any more; I feel it would sound ill, living under the same roof, and eating off the same cloth. O what a roof! and what a cloth! If I ever quit this place, never will I return to it."

Notwithstanding this courteous resolution, the awkward *Pequigni* hardly escapes the satire of her penetrating companion in a single succeeding letter: but the prudent lady begs her friend not to tell Madame *de Luynes* of her dissatisfaction: "it is dangerous to tell her what one thinks: it is furnishing *her with arms against oneself*, which she uses according to her caprice; tell her only that there appears no great fondness on my part, *that I speak very highly of her*, but that you doubt whether a very intimate union will ever be formed between us." This little *ruse* of a great lady is followed by another, which is not less entertaining: "Tell me all the news, even politics; this will secure for me a superiority, of which I avail myself so *as not to rise from my arm-chair*, not to return visits," &c.

Much liveliness is exhibited in Madame DU DEFFAND's portraits scattered through this series of letters: but, when the originals are totally unknown to the reader, he can feel little interest in the copy. The extreme freedom, that pervades

vades the epistolary dialogues, between a gentleman and a lady, might be proved by more examples than we should find it quite pleasant to make; and one will be sufficient, in which we meet with the oddest reflection on Death that ever perhaps proceeded from a female pen:

"Do you think that I shall ever see you again? do you think that I shall ever return to *la rue de Bourne?* do you think that I shall once more sup in your company? All my fear is that I shall die in this place: it would be a sad destiny to be interred in the burying ground of the Capuchins, and to be bedewed by the ——— (in French, *pissat*) of all the inhabitants of Amiens, Abbeville, Orleans," &c.

This moving "*Meditation among the Tombs*," which escaped the vigilant Hervey, gives a new and certainly a most melancholy picture of a *watery grave!*

We find no more passages in the *letters* of Madame DU DEFFAND that we can present to the reader's notice: but one of several portraits executed at the end of the work is so bold, lively, and discriminating, that it *must* be a likeness. It is taken from the Chevalier *d'Aydie*.

"He has a warm, a strong, and a vigorous understanding; every thing in him has the force and the truth of sentiment. It was said of *Fontenelle* that, instead of a heart, he had a double portion of brains: the contrary of this would define the Chevalier *d'Aydie*.

"His ideas have never been subtilized and chilled by vain metaphysics; all is first impression with him; his phraseology is strong and energetic; and if he is sometimes embarrassed in choosing the word best adapted to his thought, the hesitation gives more spring and more warmth to his language. From nobody does he borrow ideas, opinions, or manners; what he thinks, as well as what he says, is always original and natural; in short, the Chevalier *d'Aydie* demonstrates that the language of passion is the only sublime and genuine eloquence.

"But the heart has not the faculty of always feeling; it has moments of repose and inaction. Then the Chevalier is not the same person; his lights are extinguished; involved in darkness, if he speaks, it is no longer with the same eloquence; his ideas have not the same justice, nor his expressions the same energy, they are only exaggerated: one sees that he is seeking, and unable to find, himself; the original has disappeared, and the copy alone remains.

"Though the Chevalier *d'Aydie* is full of passion, yet he is not the most tender man in the world, nor the most capable of attachment; he is affected by too many different objects, to be constantly actuated by any one in particular; he is accessible to every sort of impression; merit, of whatever nature, excites in him the emotions of sensibility; in his company we enjoy the pleasure of learning our own value by the delight which he shews; and this kind of approbation is much more flattering than that which is granted by the understanding, without the participation of the heart.

"The Chevalier cannot be a calm spectator of the follies of mankind; whatever violates probity, becomes his individual quarrel: without

without pity for vices, or indulgence for absurdities, he is the terror of fools and knaves. They attack him on the consciousness and the ostentation of his morality: they say that the truly virtuous are more indulgent, more easy, and more simple.

"He is too susceptible of transient emotions to have the most even temper; but his inequalities are rather agreeable than distressing. Melancholy without being dejected, misanthropic but not rude, always sincere and original in his various changes, he pleases by his peculiar defects, and we should be sorry to see him more perfect than he is."

From the very miscellaneous correspondences comprized in these volumes between men of the highest reputation, and frequently bearing no relation to the lady who has been made to stand godmother to them, we have not room to make numerous extracts, though we have found many extremely entertaining passages. *D'Alembert* appears to great advantage: but we must not omit the opportunity of inserting two letters from *Montesquieu*, which appear to us highly and agreeably characteristic. They explain their own subjects. The first is addressed to the President *Hénault*.

"Most willingly, my illustrious brother President, would I give three or four books of the *Spirit of Laws*, to be able to write such a letter as yours; and to your sentiments of esteem I return a great deal of admiration. You restore life to my soul, which is languishing and dead, and incapable of any thing but repose. To have had the power of amusing you at Compiègne is real glory for me. My dear President, allow me to love you, allow me to remember the charms of your society, as we remember the places which we have known in our youth, when we exclaim—"I then was happy!"—You give serious lectures to the court, without losing any of your agreeable qualities; and I, having nothing to do, cannot resolve on doing any thing. I have always felt this: the less we labour, the less we have the power of labouring. You are in the region of changes: but here, around us, every thing is motionless. The marine, foreign affairs, finances,—all appears to us the same thing: it is true that we have no great delicacy of *tact*. I hear that we have had at Bourdeaux several counsellors of the parliament of Paris, who, since the vacation, are come to admire the beauties of our city; and a city to which we are not banished has more beauties than another. My dear President, I will love you as long as I live. "MONTESQUIEU."

The following extract is from a letter addressed by the same great man to *D'Alembert*, in 1753, when the latter was engaged with *Diderot* in preparing the *Encyclopédie*:

——"You have imparted great pleasure to me. I have perused and reperused your preliminary discourse; it is powerful, enchanting, precise, with more thoughts than words, and sentiments worthy of the thoughts, and I could never tire of praising it.

"As to my introduction into the *Encyclopédie*, it is a noble palace in which I should be proud to set my foot: but as to the two articles, *Democracy* and *Despotism*, I would rather not take them; I have already drawn on my brains for their whole contents on those subjects. My understand-

understanding is a mould, which produces always the same images: I could only say what I had said before, and should repeat it probably in a worse style. If you will have me, leave to my own mind the choice of some articles, and that choice shall be made at Madame *du Deffand's* over a glass of Maraſquino. Father *Caitel* says that he cannot correct, because, in correcting his work, he makes it quite different; for my part, I cannot correct because I always sing the same tune. It occurs to me that I may possibly take the article of *Taste*, and I shall prove that *difficile est proprié communia dicere.*"

In *billets* of gallantry and sprightliness, the President is not so much at home; yet nearly all these letters are excellent, though in the highest degree desultory:—but it is time to pass to the second collection announced at the head of this article,

"A contrast wide as wintry storms and spring."

Madame DU DEFFAND, when first deprived of her eye-sight, prevailed on Mademoiselle DE L'ESPINASSE, who had been educated at a convent, without ever knowing her parents or even who they were, to live at her house and alleviate her sufferings by reading and writing for her. Mademoiselle soon displayed taste and talents equal to those of her protectress, and was moreover young, handsome, and *new*. It is not wonderful, then, that the inconstant *literati* transferred a great part of their admiration to the more agreeable object; nor that Madame DU DEFFAND soon dismissed and never forgave her. It is testified by *la Harpe* and by *Marmontel* that Mad. DU D.'s conduct was brutal and insulting; and she even went so far as to call on *d'Alembert* to make his election between renouncing his long established intimacy with her, and resolving to forego the society of the youthful L'ESPINASSE. His choice most probably confounded her, since he preferred his new acquaintance at that price, without a moment's hesitation; and it is singular that, in an illness which afterward attacked him, he resided in the house and was restored by the assiduous kindness of his grateful friend. It is still more singular that he should never afterward leave her; and that this Platonic union, continued for many years under the same roof, never occasioned the smallest scandal or suspicion.

The above details are taken from the two *notices* prefixed to these respective publications. We are enabled to add, from a note that occurs in M. *Grimoard's* late edition of Lord Bolingbroke's Letters *, (tom. 2. p. 432.) the following curious particulars:

"Madame *de Tencin*, one of his lordship's friends and mistresses, the sister of his most constant correspondent Madame *de Ferriol*, having taken the veil at an early age, procured a dispensation

* See the 1st. Article in this Appendix.

from

from her vows, and was famous for gallantry, ambition, brokerage of money, (a favourite employment of the French nobility at the time of *Law*'s unbounded influence at Paris,) politics, and literature. She had an amour with M. *Camus Destouches*, which gave birth to this very *D'Alembert*, whom she wholly neglected: but his father, in causing him to be exposed, assigned him a pension of 1200 francs, and gave a note with the necessary authority for receiving that sum, to whatever person should maintain him. The child was picked up and bred by a woman who sold glass. It was afterward his whimsical destiny to form an intimate connection with *Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse*, who died in June 1776, and with whom at last he lodged; *she was the bastard of the Cardinal de Tencin*, as *D'Alembert* was of Madame *de Tencin*, the sister of that prelate; — a most singular identity of origin and sort of relationship, considering the intimacy of these two individuals, of which that relationship was neither the cause nor the principle. They had become acquainted at the house of Madame *du Deffand*, where Mademoiselle *de l' Espinasse served her apprenticeship* of *bel esprit*."

From some expressions in the biographical notices, we apprehend that these first cousins, the illegitimate children of the Cardinal and the *Chanoinesse*, were always ignorant of their relationship; to which no allusion is ever made by either *La Harpe* or *Marmontel*, nor by the lady herself in the course of these letters, though the name of her inmate repeatedly occurs in them. Will this curious fact be quoted in support of the theory of natural affection?—many theories have been built on a less reasonable basis.

The house of Mademoiselle DE L'ESPINASSE, thus tenanted, became, after her separation from her former friend, the resort of the most brilliant literary society which Paris could boast; yet we confess that her letters have entirely disappointed us. They have none of that variety which forms the best charm of a correspondence, but are all addressed to a single person, whose answers do not appear, and are full of the most resolute love-making ever evinced by woman to man since the amours of Calypso and Ulysses. They may perhaps display great force of sentimental language, and great felicity in analyzing the soft emotions: but, on the whole, we think that they are calculated to fatigue English readers by their monotony, and to disgust them by their want of delicacy. We do not mean that *decency* is ever violated: but the lady's vehement declarations of the most tender sentiments, and her importunate demands of a return to them, are not consistent with English old-fashioned feelings of propriety; which are the more severely shocked, inasmuch as the correspondence begins soon after the death of a former lover, to whom the lady professes inviolable attachment, and continues in spite of the intervening marriage to another woman of the Phaon of this modern Sappho: who is

said

said by *Marmontel* to have rivalled the Lesbian poetess in the possesion of an "ardent soul and an inflammable imagination."

It should not be forgotten that, when these letters were composed, the writer was not far from fifty years old, and had lost all pretensions to beauty by the ravages of the small-pox. They also contain various particulars which are more fit to be laid before a physician than a lover:—despair goes hand-in-hand with opium;—the sufferings of the heart are balanced by those of the chest;—and the sad victim of an unfortunate passion describes herself as at once coughing and sighing, oppressed with phlegm and drowned in floods of tears. While wounded affection sacrifices every hope of happiness, "the stomach makes a surrender of all the dinner which it has admitted;" and the most uncontroulable emotions of disappointed love are (actually!) cut short by a sudden and still more dreadful attack on the bowels! Our readers have perhaps already exclaimed, "Something too much of this:" but we could easily have produced many similar examples. Notwithstanding, the letters can hardly fail to excite compassion for the state of mind which produced them: but it will be a compassion unmingled with any one agreeable sensation.

The two chapters in imitation of the manner of Sterne are pretty and pathetic: but they are more like "*l'Ami des Enfans*" of *Berquin*, than the inimitable Journey of our English Yorick.

ART. VIII. *Du Cotonnier et de sa Culture*, &c. *i. e.* Of the Cotton Plant and its Cultivation, or a Treatise on the different Species of Cotton Plants, on the possibility and the Means of Naturalizing that Shrub in France, on its Culture in different Countries, especially in the South of Europe, and on the Economical and Commercial Properties and Advantages of Cotton. By CHARLES PHILIBERT DE LASTEYRIE, Member of various Literary, Philosophical, and Agricultural Societies. With three Plates. 8vo. pp. 454. Paris. 1808. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 12s. sewed.

THIS is an extremely sensible and judicious treatise, well stored with the result of much accurate personal observation and research, and worthy of being attentively studied by all who are interested in cotton-plantations. The work consists of three parts; the first of which is intitled *General Considerations on the Cotton-plant*; the second treats of its culture in the warmer climates of Europe; and the third, of the practical modes of raising it in different countries.

Under

Under his General Considerations, the author very dispassionately weighs the practicability and the means of obtaining cotton-crops in France, the various advantages to be derived from an extension of this branch of husbandry, and the different species or varieties of the plant, with their appropriate qualities and habitations.—The topics discussed in the second part are, climate, exposure, soil, preparation of the ground, manure, choice and preparation of seed, the proper season for sowing, distance between the plants, mode of sowing and of forming plantations, beds, nurseries, transplanting, treatment of the crop when growing and when in blossom, the injuries to which it is liable from unfavourable weather and insects, reaping, modes of separating the seeds and extraneous matters from the wool, calculation of expences and nett profit, the particular attentions which are requisite for the healthy growth of the perennial species during the second and subsequent years, the mixture and rotation of crops, and the mode of culture which seems to be the best adapted to the latitude of Southern Europe. The third part treats of the culture of this plant in Sicily, Malta, the Levant, Egypt, China, Cochin-China, the West Indies, Cayenne, and Surinam.

From an entire conviction that our general readers would scarcely thank us for any detailed comment on this valuable publication, and that those who are more immediately concerned can be essentially benefited only by having recourse to the ungarbled text, we shall content ourselves with an extract from the supplement; which exhibits the results of experiments made in several of the departments of France in 1807, notwithstanding the late distribution of seed on the part of the government, and the inexperience of many of the farmers:

'*Alps* (*Lower*). From some trials made in the fifth *arrondissement*, and in the southern parts of the third, we are induced to believe that the culture of the cotton-plant may be there successfully established.

'*Maritime Alps.* Attempts in this department have not been equally propitious, though the climate and exposure are more favourable: but we have reason to suspect that the failure originated in a defective mode of culture.

'*Mouths of the Rhône.* The Academy of Marseilles had selected from its members a committee to inquire into the culture of the cotton-plant. On the 10th of December, the commissioners reported that they had obtained satisfactory results; and that, previously to that period, several individuals who had reared the shrubby species, either in their gardens or in the open fields, had reaped a fair produce, which was manufactured into stuffs and stockings. Thus it is demonstrated by fact that the environs of Marseilles, Cassis, the

Ciotat,

Ciotat, and several other places of this department, are adapted to this new description of agricultural industry.

'*Corsica.* Although the mild temperature which reigns in many parts of Corsica, and the great number of plains and sheltered spots which it includes, afforded strong indications of the facility with which the cotton-plant might be naturalized in that country, the trials which were made, last year, in the departments of Liamone and Golo, leave no longer any room to doubt on the subject.

'*Drome.* The experimental essays conduced at Montelimar, Pirot, Mirmande, and Buis, have been successful. In the vicinity of the last mentioned town, each plant yielded from eight to ten capsules, most of which arrived at maturity, though the sowing was so long retarded.

'*Gard.* In this department, last year, several varieties of seed were sown, and that which came from Georgia was found to answer better than that of the West Indies, or of Fernambuco. For a considerable time past, some individuals of Nismes have been in the practice of growing in their gardens a few plants, of which the produce has been converted into stockings. They allow the shrub to grow quite freely, without lopping the tops of the branches, and thus deprive themselves of a large portion of the crop which they might easily gain.

'*Garonne (Upper.)* Some plants sown at Toulouse have yielded mature pods.

'*Gers.* The success which has been obtained in some *communes*, especially at Auch, seems to promise favourably for the future.

'*Hérault.* Our observations on the department of the Gard equally apply to this; and the results which have been for a long while obtained at Montpellier are not less favourable.

'*Landes.* The experiments at Mont-de-Marsan, and in some other parts of the *Landes*, when the season was already advanced, have nevertheless succeeded. This fact is so much the more important, as it affords us the prospect of converting to useful purposes whole tracts of land which had been abandoned, and which, notwithstanding, are excellently fitted for the growth of cotton.

'*Eastern Pyrénées.* Some of the curious have long cultivated this shrub in their gardens at Perpignan. Last year, ripe capsules were obtained at the same place. We are warranted to hope that the naturalization of the plant may be different in various valleys of this department, and in many spots which are screened from the cold winds.

'*Rhône and Loire.* Experience has also demonstrated that the cotton-plant succeeds in the gardens of Lyons, being propagated by seeds, and yielding down of an excellent quality.

'*Var.* This kind of culture has been attempted on a large scale at Saint-Tropez, where it is favoured by the heat of the climate, and the various facilities of irrigation. Hieres is doubtless the quarter of this department which bids fairest for the most prosperous results, as has indeed been proved by the experiments of the last year.

'*Vaucluse.* From the trials at la Pepinière de Vaucluse, and at Carpentras, we may augur most favourably of future attempts.'

We

We think that a good translation of M. LASTEYRIE's work could hardly fail to meet with encouragement.

ART. IX. *Acta Instituti Clinici Cæsareæ Universitatis Vilnensis. Aucto e* JOSEPHO FRANK. *Augustissimo Imperatori et Totius Russiæ Autocratori a Consiliis aulicis, Therapiæ Specialis et Clinices in Cæsarea Universitate Vilnensi Professore*, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 155. Hagæ-Comitis. 1808. Imported by Dulau and Co.

THE perusal of this volume has interested us on several accounts. It is desirable to have a correct report of the state of disease, in a country which differs in many respects from our own; to learn how far the practice of a well informed continental physician coincides with our established principles; and to observe the progress of science in a remote district, which we are disposed to regard as almost on the verge of barbarism. The author of the work is the son of the Professor of the same name, who is generally known as having been attached to the hospital at Vienna, but who is now a resident and practitioner at Petersburgh.

We could not, however, avoid smiling at the exordium. Dr. FRANK alleges, as the motive for publishing these clinical reports, that the labours of the university of Wilna (in the remote country of Lithuania) have attracted the attention of the learned men of the whole world, and that in course its medical transactions would claim some share of their curiosity! He then details the different opportunities which he has had for acquiring the knowlege that is necessary for his office, and gives a general view of the state of his opinions as to medical theory. It appears that he was formerly attached to 'the very ingenious theory of John Brown,' although he never assented to every part of it: but he has now no hesitation in confessing 'that he ascribed by far too much merit to it.' This is a mental process through which many medical students of these times have passed; and we feel our respect for the author increased by his candid confession. Having therefore rejected hypothesis, and 'being restored to liberty,' he anxiously inquired to what authority he might the most safely trust; and he soon discovered that the writings of such men as Hippocrates, Sydenham, and Baglivi, who chiefly devoted themselves to minutely recording their observations, are the best guides in the science of medicine:

'Let those,' he says, 'who would learn true medicine, that art which will be salutary to the state and to their patients, read and read again the works of these authors. They will perceive that these great men almost entirely abstained from any judgment respecting

ing proximate causes, or the secret powers of medicines; and that they were chiefly employed in accurately describing the phænomena of disease, and the different effects of remedies under different circumstances. All those who have enriched the science of medicine with the most useful precepts have followed their example. Who would not prefer reading the works of Galen, Cœlius Aurelianus, Hoffmann, Boerhaave, and Cullen, if they consisted of mere observation, without any hypotheses?'

We quote these observations, not as containing any sentiments which are new to the medical men of this country, but as shewing our readers that the spirit of investigation, which originated in this island, is not now confined to it. The author does not, however, consign all the works of his predecessors to oblivion; since, though he so decidedly prefers observation to hypothesis, as the basis of all medical science, yet he admits that the different theories, which have successively engrossed the attention of mankind, may each contain some useful truths. The doctrine of the humoral pathology, those of the mechanists and of the chemists, and 'even the theory of incitement itself,' may explain some morbid phænomena, or elucidate the action of some remedy, and should all be studied:—but if we thus disclaim all exclusive attachment to any particular hypothesis, whence are the indications of cure to be derived, or on what principles are they to be founded? Dr. FRANK points out three sources, the experience of former practitioners, our observation in each of the *ledentia* and *juvantia*, (as they are styled,) and the peculiar constitution of the season.

Dr. F. then proceeds to give a description of the hospital at Wilna, and details many of the regulations which have been formed for the purpose of promoting cleanliness, ventilation, &c. The only circumstance, that strikes us as in any degree peculiar to this establishment, is the manner of disposing of the patients who die in the wards. The bodies are removed to a chamber which in the winter-season is kept warm, where the corpse is placed in a bed for 24 hours: to his hands and feet ropes are then tied, which are connected with bells in the chamber of the superintendant; so that, if by any chance life should be restored, the circumstance is immediately made known.—In the first nine months of his office, the author had 135 clinical patients under his care.

We have next a description of Wilna, its climate and soil, the manners of the people, their diet, habitations, employments, &c., so far as these circumstances may affect their constitution, or may influence the diseases to which they are subject. The climate seems to be very ungenial; June and July are the

only proper summer-months; even in August they have often a considerable degree of cold; and in December, January, and February they have the most severe frosts, when the cold is sometimes very intense. The number of the inhabitants is between 35 and 36,000; and of these, 11,500 are Jews, whose manners, especially their extreme inattention to cleanliness, seem to give a decided character to their prevailing diseases. It does not appear that any epidemic is peculiar to Wilna; the *plica* is less common here than on the Vistula; rheumatisms and catarrhs of all descriptions appear to be the most prevailing complaints; and the author feelingly laments the frequency of scrofula and phthisis. Typhus is not endemic, but its contagion is occasionally imported; the small-pox sometimes commits great ravages; and, unfortunately, a prejudice prevails, especially with the Jews, against vaccination. Among 'that most filthy people,' cutaneous diseases seem to be frequent.

After this introductory matter, the author proceeds to consider the different diseases which fell under his care, classing them according to their species, and giving the sum of his experience respecting each of them. We shall select one or two of these sections, and shall examine them with some degree of minuteness; in order that our readers may, from these specimens, form their opinion of the merit of the work in general.

We are naturally anxious to learn what Dr. FRANK says respecting Typhus. He informs us that he considers it to be 'a fever generally contagious, with a peculiar affection of the nervous system, often attended in its progress with *petechiæ* and other *exanthemata*.' Though we are not in the habit of attaching any very great importance to nosological distinctions, yet evils may certainly arise from inaccuracy on these points; and in the present instance our critical duty obliges us to state our objections to Dr. F.'s definition of typhus. The term 'generally contagious' would imply that the disease is sometimes contagious and sometimes not. If this alternative depends solely on the degree in which the malady exists, and only means that when slight it is not contagious, but that it becomes so when sufficiently violent, we should say that this circumstance, though proper to be noticed in a description or history, ought not to form part of a definition, because this should always be supposed to refer to a fully formed case of the complaint in question. If, however, by the phrase 'generally contagious,' the author intends to convey the idea that the same disease, when in its acute form, is sometimes capable of propagating itself by contagion, and at other times is not, we must refuse our assent to the opinion; and we must

conceive that, under the term *typhus*, Dr. FRANK has included collections of symptoms which are essentially different from each other. Typhus may originate from various causes, as does diarrhœa or phthisis: but, when once formed, typhus is always the same disease, and is always contagious.—The second member of the definition, 'with a peculiar affection of the nervous system,' expresses a fact, but a fact which is too vaguely stated to be of much use.—To the last part of the definition, we decidedly object, as referring to a circumstance which is not only an accidental but even an unfrequent occurrence. If it be otherwise at Wilna, (which, from the author's own reports, does not appear to be the case,) we still do not acquit him of the impropriety of permitting it to enter into his general definition of the disease; and we are surprized to find that a writer, who seems to possess an extensive acquaintance with the literature of other countries, should have fallen into such an error. These remarks apply to the introduction of *petechiæ* into the definition; and still more do we object to that of the 'other *exanthemata*.' This is indeed at once confounding all distinctions, and, by one sweeping clause, entirely destroying any benefit that might be derived from classification and arrangement.—Dr. FRANK's definition is also chargeable with omissions, as well as with errors; nothing is said of the increased temperature, and the peculiar state of the circulation, which we consider as the two pathognomonic symptoms. It is not enough to reply that these are comprehended under the word *fever*, since it is admitted that in some fevers the heat is not increased beyond the usual standard; and that in others, although the pulse be affected, it is in a contrary state to that which is characteristic of typhus.

In describing the cases of typhus which came under his care, the author first gives an account of those which seemed to originate from cold and moisture; forming that mixture of symptoms which we frequently observe in this country, and to which we may suppose the climate of Wilna must render its inhabitants obnoxious. His practice, though in general judicious, is marked with the peculiarity of his countrymen, (a peculiarity which we cannot but ascribe to the less advanced state of medical science among them,) viz. the tendency to multiply the articles of the Materia Medica. In proportion as medicine has become better understood, the number of its instruments has been diminished; so that, in a case in which a century ago twenty articles would have been employed, the German physician will now use five or six, and the English one or two. Simplicity may indeed be carried to excess, but it is of a less

a less pernicious nature than the contrary extreme. In the treatment of these cases, Dr. FRANK was in the habit of prescribing musk, camphor, the sulphuret of antimony, hyoscyamus, lichen Islandicus, arnica, digitalis, and blisters.

The next set of cases that are described are those which were attended with *petechiæ*. We were surprized to find the author advancing the opinion that this species of fever pursues a regular course, which brings it spontaneously to a salutary termination; and that, when it follows this track, he did not deem it proper to interfere. No doubt, in many instances, fevers, when left to themselves, terminate favourably, but we do not think that the observation applies to this so much as to some other varieties of typhus; and we are of opinion that considerable benefit may frequently arise from interfering with and putting a stop to those actions, which have been considered as the salutary efforts of the constitution. Some of the cases, however, under Dr. FRANK's care, he found too violent to be left to nature; and he therefore had recourse to more active practice. Here the symptoms were general weakness, delirium, *subsultus*, and *petechiæ*, and the principal remedies employed were camphor, musk, ammonia, and ether.

At the beginning of the year 1806, the contagion of typhus was conveyed to Wilna by some soldiers, who were on their march across the province, and was disseminated through all the country along which they passed. Some weeks elapsed before the disease became general in the city, but at length it appeared in a very alarming form. In its symptoms it resembled the typhus of this country: but *petechiæ* seem to have been more common than they are with us; and we are informed that occasionally the whole body acquired a yellow tinge. The remedies principally used were sulphuric acid, arnica, musk, balm, matricaria, the wild poppy, ether, and ammonia. In some cases, glisters of *asa-fœtida* were administered, the abdomen was cooled by the application of ice, and blisters were placed on the thighs.

In such reports as these, we should not expect to have very full and complete histories of individual cases; yet we naturally look for the enumeration of those symptoms which are generally present, and which give a character to the disease. We are therefore disappointed by Dr. FRANK having taken so little notice of the temperature of his patients; we can scarcely suppose that their heat was not morbidly increased; and his mention of Dr. Currie's practice proves that he was aware of the importance which, in this country, we attach to this circumstance. He informs us that, in two instances, he washed the body with cold water, but that he was prevented from

repeating this practice in consequence of several contra-indications. We apprehend that, if he had tried it more extensively, he would have discovered his fears to be groundless.—Many of our readers may wonder at not finding wine enumerated among the principal remedies for typhus. We imagine that, in some of these cases, it might have been employed with advantage: but we have long been of opinion that the extent to which it is frequently administered in this country is highly injudicious, that the practice originated in false views of the nature of the disease, and that it was fostered by an improper compliance with the feelings of the patients, or perhaps in not a few instances by sinister motives in the attendants on the sick. It must be remembered that, as Dr. FRANK entered on his medical career with Brunonian principles, and afterward saw reason to abandon them, he might probably at the same time discard the practice to which they led, and be in danger of falling into the opposite extreme.

We have already had occasion to commend the candour which Dr. F. exhibits in relating his juvenile errors, and in recanting his mistaken attachment to the hypothesis of Brown; of which we have a striking instance in his account of a case of apoplexy, the cause of which was obscure, and which was attended with some symptoms that rendered the practice very critical. After mature deliberation, he finally determined in favour of bleeding, and happily succeeded in restoring the patient to health. He concludes the account by the following remarks:

'I feel thankful to the Almighty, that he committed the case to me at this period, and not at the time when I was addicted to the dogmas of Brown; for then I might easily have destroyed such a patient. Who among the followers of Brown, in such a state of things, would have ventured to bleed? Who among them would not rather have exhibited sulphuric ether, or ammoniac, or other irritating substances? In this manner a patient was treated at Vienna, who was found lying on the ground in an apoplexy, and was conveyed to the hospital in a state of hemiplegia and fatuity. He there passed a most wretched existence for a year; and on opening the head after death, a large abscess was found in one of the ventricles of the brain.'

We shall give one more specimen of the author's practice, viz. his manner of treating Phthisis; which we do not select in consequence of its superior excellence, but because it approaches more to the German style of prescribing. A young man, constitutionally disposed to the disease, neglected a cold, in consequence of which he had all the symptoms of an advanced consumption. The complaint was of four months standing,

standing, and during the last three months he had been much exhausted by a violent diarrhœa. The first medicine that was ordered was a decoction of marsh-mallows and liquorice, and then a decoction of the *orchis mascula* with *digitalis* was prescribed: we are not able to determine exactly in what quantity this medicine was given: but it brought on great weakness, pain above the eyes, and vomiting, and was consequently discontinued. In its stead, an infusion of *matricaria* was given, and afterward an infusion of the seeds of the *phellandrium aquaticum*. The cough and expectoration are said to have been then diminished, but the perspiration was excessive, for which a mixture of the *tinctura aromatica sulphuricata* and the *tinctura opii composita* was prescribed. The sweats disappeared, and the medicine was left off. The strength of the patient was, however, much broken down, and an infusion of hyssop was prescribed; then jelly and harts-horn, camphor, and a mixture of hyssop and gum-Arabic. The *cerussa acetata* was now given, but it was thought to have the effect of increasing the diarrhœa; it was therefore omitted, and the diarrhœa was checked by glisters of *matricaria* and opium. Œdema of the feet and a diminution of the quantity of urine now supervened: for the first symptom, fumigations of juniper-berries were ordered; and for the second, a decoction of the *orchis mascula* with the nitrous spirit of ether and syrup of poppies. The next occurrence was a violent pain in the breast, for which an ointment of *althæa* was applied: the pulse was next observed to be in a state of great irritation; and for the purpose of removing this symptom, the syrup of the *papaver rhœas* was ordered; then, the diarrhœa being again troublesome, a powder composed of ipecacuanha and opium was given; and in consequence of a pain in the chest, a plaister of trefoil and camphor was applied. Lastly, the spirit of harts-horn was given, and seemed to afford some relief: but the patient died, as it were from suffocation.

After this long history, the author recapitulates the principal circumstances of the case, and points out the objects which he had in view in his different prescriptions. The *digitalis*, he thinks, did positive harm, but the mischief was removed by the salutary effects of the *matricaria*. He expresses confidence in the virtues of the *phellandrium* and the hyssop, and also in the external use of the marsh-mallows and the juniper-berries.

It will not be necessary for us to make many observations on this case. To an English physician, the greatest part of the practice must seem complete trifling; and though, in a disease so generally fatal, it may be allowable, or even necessary, to

prescribe to the feelings of the patient, yet it is to be regretted that such prescriptions should be regarded in any other than their true light.

We must here close our account of this volume; on which we have been induced, by the circumstances already mentioned, to bestow a degree of attention that may appear disproportionate to its size. Notwithstanding some defects, however, we recommend it to the attention of our countrymen.

ART. X. *Essai qui a remporté le Prix*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay, which obtained the Prize given by the Academy of Nismes for determining the Question, "What is the fundamental Principle of Interest on Money, what are the accidental Causes of its Variations, and what Relation has it to Morality?" By J. D. MEYER, Member of the Royal Institute of Holland, and Foreign Associate of the Academy Du Gard at Nismes. 8vo. pp. 85. Amsterdam. 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co.

NOT inaptly does this writer usher forth his performance from Amsterdam, a city in which heretofore this subject was most considered, most illustrated by experience, and best understood. How far the wealthy citizens of that place may now be conversant with it in practice, we are unable to state: but the pages before us furnish irrefragable evidence that the theory could not at any period have been better comprehended than at the present moment, not even by those heads from whose subtle contrivances first sprang bank-money and the agio.

Novelty is not to be here expected: but the subject is skilfully analyzed, the foundation of the usage is placed in the clearest light, and the objections to it are most completely refuted. The author divides his Essay into two parts. In the first, intitled the *Theory of Interest*, he investigates its origin, the principles on which it rests, and the causes of its variations: in the second, he examines how far positive laws ought to regulate it, or (to adopt his own language) discusses its relations to morality. Merely to shew the merit of the work as an able disquisition, we shall make a few extracts from it.

M. MEYER thus states the circumstances which gave rise to the invention of money:

'While no commerce prevailed between men but that of exchange, any great extension of it was impossible: a perfect equality of the matters to be bartered would rarely happen; and it was difficult to make up the defect of the one, or to take off the excess of the other, unless something was used for the express purpose of such an adjustment. It therefore became necessary to look out for something intermediate,

mediate, which was capable of constituting or representing the value of objects, and which consequently should be the measure of them, or a medium of comparison between them. This intermediate matter is that which we call money, be it weighed or stamped metal, or any other matter, provided that it may serve as the common measure of the value and price of objects.

'A proprietor may, by contract, grant the use of a thing which belongs to him, for a limited time; and this may be either a gratuitous or an onerous loan. These two contracts in no respect affect the thing lent; so that, when the term is at an end, the proprietor is restored to his rights, and exercises full dominion over it. The right of using a thing, being of obvious utility, may also be estimated in money; and in a contract of hiring it is denominated *hire*, which is different from *price*, which represents the value of the object itself. The hire is, however, subject to the same general law as the price. The value proceeds from the utility which we may derive, or which a person believes he may derive, from a thing: this utility is necessarily greater when we have an indefinite and not a limited right to that thing: and the price will therefore be always greater than the hire. If we would estimate the value of any thing, that is to say the price, independently and separately from its use, it will be the nature of the object that will determine the relation of the price to the hire.'

The writer states that the circumstances which determine the rate of interest are the concurrence of lenders and borrowers, the risk to be run, and the greater or less facility of employing capital. He questions the general notion entertained by historians, which assigns its rareness as the cause of the extravagant interest at which money was borrowed in the middle ages; observing that, if money was rare, the demand for it was also small; and he with reason thinks that this high rate was principally occasioned by the prohibitory laws then in force, and the imperfect manner in which justice was administered.

Having, with superior perspicuity, traced the origin of the interest of money, and the circumstances which fix the rate of it, M. MEYER discusses the morality of the practice:

'Money-loans on interest,' he observes, 'are now become the most frequent of all our contracts; how happened it that, for so long a period, such bargains were proscribed by the laws of polished nations, who felt the necessity of such contracts, and who uniformly violated the laws which they dared not alter? These contracts were condemned by the heads of the church, and divines, whose influence over a mere civil transaction could not have been anticipated; were criminally prosecuted by the lawyers before the criminal tribunals; and yet were adopted by merchants, and those who stood in need of pecuniary advances.'

The second part of the tract assigns the explanation of this phænomenon. The antients, the author remarks, were strangers to this singular legislation; and he ascribes it to the true

cause,

ART. XI. *Œuvres Posthumes du Duc* DE NIVERNOIS, &c.; *i. e.* The Posthumous Works of the Duke DE NIVERNOIS, published, with his *Eloge*, by *N. François* (*de Neufchâteau*). 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1807. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

THESE volumes may be considered as forming an appendix to the preceding works of an excellent man and a very accomplished writer, whom we have reviewed on other occasions * under the simple designation of the *Citoyen* MANCINI-NIVERNOIS, but who is posthumously restored, under the imperial *regime*, to the honours of a Duke and Peer of France. The *éloge* informs us that, at his very advanced period of life, he bore the privation of wealth and dignity with rare composure, cheerfulness, and philosophy; and that he exhibited a gratifying example of the effect of literary habits, in reconciling the mind to all the reverses of fortune. "He may no longer be a Duke at court," said the Abbé *Barthélémi*, whose life he afterward recorded, "but he will always retain the title on Parnassus."

After having witnessed many of the horrible scenes of the Revolution, and among the rest the cruel massacre of his son-in-law, the Duke *de Brissac*, governor of Paris, and commander of the body guards, M. DE NIVERNOIS was himself arrested on the 13th of September, 1793, and was detained above a year in prison; where, surrounded with books, and employed in composing verses, he became the comforter of his fellow-captives, and the benefactor of those whose penury aggravated their other misfortunes. In August 1794, when he was above eighty years of age, and his constitution was broken, he was restored to his plundered house, where he lived till February 1798; preserving to the last his *atticism*, his wit, and the charms of his highly-polished conversation. On the 25th of that month, feeling himself particularly ill, he addressed the following note to M. *Caille*, his friend and physician, to dissuade him from calling other physicians to a consultation with him:

"*Ne consultons point d'avocats;*
Hippocrate ne viendrait pas.
Je n'en veux pas d'autre en ma cure:
J'ai l'amitié, j'ai la nature,
Qui font bonne guerre au trépas;
Mais peut-être dame Nature
A déja décidé mon cas;
Ah! du moins, sans changer d'allure,
Je veux mourir entre vos bras."

* See M. Rev. Vol. xviii. N. S. pp. 558.; Vol. xx. p. 580.; Vol. xxiv. p. 492.

A most

A most interesting and beautiful example of philosophic tranquillity in the contemplation of immediate death! When he composed the verses just quoted, being too weak to hold the pen himself, he dictated them in bed to an old amanuensis, and died six hours afterward!

In the short interval between his imprisonment and his death, he printed the collection of his works to which we have already alluded, but had the discretion to commit to the flames a large portion of his papers. The publication contains a long poem intitled *Richardet*, in verses of ten syllables; the longest indeed in that measure in the French language, translated from thirty cantos and compressed by him into twelve, from the Italian of the prelate *Fortiguerra*, the friend of Clement the Twelfth. The original poem, which was to a certain degree impromptu (*improvisé*) in consequence of a kind of challenge thrown out on the subject of Ariosto and Bernis, appears to be principally conversant with subjects of the heroic romance; and to rival, in whimsicality of style and sentiment, the most fantastical passages of Ariosto. The negligence, with which it is executed by M. DE NIVERNOIS, is here excused and applauded by the observation that the thirty thousand verses which compose it were written by him, *currente calamo*, in his revolutionary prison.

Our admiration of the good sense and good humour of this amiable philosopher is awakened by some lively stanzas on his own situation, in 1797, which conclude with the alternate *envois*—"*Ahi! povero Mancini!*" and "*Ah! Ah! trop heureux Mancini!*" That his indifference, with respect to his own change of fortune, was not the result of insensibility, is proved by a noble poem on the arrest of his friend the Abbé *Barthélemi*, called "*Anacharsis in prison.*" His portrait of the venerable sage is highly dignified and impressive:

'*Vous qui cultivez dans votre ame*
Le doux instinct de la pitié;
Vous dont le noble cœur s'enflamme
Pour la vertu, pour l'amitié:
Ecoutez la touchante histoire
Du vénérable Anacharsis;
Vous savez tous qu'il est la gloire
Comme l'amour de son pays.

'*Déja sur le déclin de l'âge,*
Il est usé par les travaux;
Mais la sagesse et le courage,
Le guériront de tous les maux.
Il demeurait chez une amie,
Qui suffit seule à son bonheur;

Il la soignait plus que sa vie,
Elle l'aimait de tout son cœur.

On vient le prendre en cet asile,
On n'en savait pas la raison;
Mais c'était l'ordre de la ville,
On le conduisit en prison.
Il y va sans avoir d'alarmes:
La vertu pure ne craint rien.
Mais son amie est toute en larmes;
On craint tout quand on aime bien.

Il arrive au séjour funeste,
Qui fait frémir jeunes et vieux;
Il ne marchait pas d'un air leste,
Mais l'assurance dans les yeux;
A son aspect chacun s'étonne;
Chacun accourt pour l'admirer,
Avec amour on l'environne,
On est tout près de l'adorer.

Les prisonniers, les geoliers même,
Sont à ses pieds, la larme à l'œil;
Anacharsis voit comme on l'aime,
Il s'attendrit d'un tel accueil.'

The eulogist of M. DE NIVERNOIS remarks that his shorter poetical works are preferable to his longer and more elaborate compositions; and he quotes his gallant and most elegant compliment to Madame *de Mirepoix*, which, though well known, we feel great pleasure in transcribing into our pages. It has been lately translated by the ingenious gentleman who has favoured us with many beautiful minor poems from the Greek anthology, but, we think, not quite with his usual felicity:

Quoi! vous parlez de cheveux blancs!
Laissons, laissons courir le temps;
Que vous importe son ravage?
Les amours sont toujours enfants,
Et les graces sont de tout âge.
Pour moi, Thémire, je le sens,
Je suis toujours dans mon printemps
Quand je vous offre mon hommage.
Si je n'avais que dix-huit ans,
Je pourrais aimer plus long-temps,
Mais non pas aimer d'avantage.'

Scarcely any of the sonnets and madrigals of this agreeable writer are destitute of point and felicity of expression: but his Fables are properly considered as his principal performances; and he is aptly styled, with reference to the morals of them, which

which are almost exclusively designed for persons of the highest rank, "*Esop at Court.*"

The Duke DE N. enjoyed in an eminent degree the good opinion of the public, and the confidence of his sovereign, by whom he was three times employed in important embassies, viz. at Rome, at Berlin, and in England. Some of the letters written by him during the first and second missions are appended to the first part of this posthumous work: but we were most entertained by those which passed between the Duke and *Montesquieu*, who solicits his interest in favour of *l'Esprit des Loix*, then in some hazard of being condemned by the Inquisition, with an anxiety that surprised and amused us. His noble patron appears to have undertaken his cause heartily, and to have succeeded in rescuing him from ecclesiastical censures.

In the second division, this work is almost entirely occupied with academical discourses, pronounced by the Duke on the reception of several persons into the Academy, and with compliments of congratulation presented by that learned body to the throne. We can easily believe that the elevated rank, the enlightened mind, and the gracious manners of this distinguished person rendered him a most dignified and perfect representative of the old Academy of France: but we should not have sighed for any specimens of eloquence on these occasions. It is impossible that they should display any originality or depth of sentiment; and it happens that none of the members who were installed by the Duke, except *Condorcet*, has filled any considerable space in the eyes of foreigners, at least. The replies of these gentlemen to the several addresses made to them are extremely superfluous. Two memoirs follow, which were read at the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Letters, on the policy of Clovis, and on the independence of the earliest French kings with respect to the empire. They evince much historical research, and a laudable zeal for the honour of his country.

The third part of these posthumous tracts relates to the Duke's embassy to this country, where he was the plenipotentiary to negotiate the peace of 1763; a peace of which the extreme unpopularity among us may be considered as a strong evidence of the ability with which it was conducted by our enemies. English prejudice may, however, be supposed to have so far died away on that subject, as to leave us at full liberty to render justice to the French ambassador; and we shall all be inclined to agree with his eulogist that the hateful charge of accepting French bribes, preferred against several of the English ministers at that time, and even against the Princess

Princess Dowager of Wales, is not more inconsistent with their habits and with the English character, than with the pure principles and refined integrity of the Duke DE NIVERNOIS, who was supposed to have dispensed them. The confidential letters, that passed between the Duke and his friends in the ministry at Versailles, abound with the most decisive internal evidence against that injurious suspicion; since they are full of the bitterest and manifestly the sincerest complaints against every man in office in London, with the single exception of Lord Bute. They constitute the private correspondence only, the official dispatches being still withholden from the public by French official jealousy; and the general tenor of the observations proves that, notwithstanding some obvious mistakes, the Duke was a very shrewd inspector of our politics, and had formed no incorect notion of the state of parties in England in the years 1762 and 1763. The difficulties encountered by him were numerous and formidable; he repeatedly declares that the only two persons on this side of the water, who were really anxious for peace, were His Majesty and the Earl of Bute: all the other ministers, and unfortunately for him the foreign secretary in particular, Lord Egremont, being considered by him as secretly hostile to the measure, and violently alarmed at the possible consequences of taking too active a share in it. They seem to have had the results of the treaty of Utrecht before their eyes; and they frequently urged their own danger of confiscation, proscription, banishment, and even death, as reasons for inducing the French court to acquiesce in the terms proposed. Whether their apprehensions were sincere, or assumed for the attainment of temporary purposes, we will not undertake to determine: but their remonstrances, intercessions, and divisions appear to have made the Duke's correspondence with them extremely painful to him; while the threatened opposition to the peace, in parliament, fomented by Mr. Pitt and the Dukes of Cumberland and Newcastle, announced by the free strictures of the English press, and exasperated by contemptuous and insulting caricatures, actually inspired him with the horrible expectation of a civil war. His fears must surely have subsided when the courtly address was carried without a division in the House of Lords, and the minority in the Lower House could muster only sixty-five against more than three hundred. If the French ambassador thought it worth while to speculate on the nature of our government, he must have been convinced that, on this occasion, the House of Commons at that time was no representative of the people's feelings; and his own exulting exclamations, on the advantages gained to his country by the treaty under consideration, perhaps led him

to doubt whether it was, in a greater degree, the guardian of the people's interests.

We must observe that the letters here published are by no means sufficiently select. The climate of London was a perpetual curse to the delicate health of the plenipotentiary, whose affecting complaints of colds, rheumatisms, and inflamed eyes, are dismally re-echoed by an equally depressing catalogue of disorders from his principal correspondent at Paris. Yet the fogs of December, the extreme variableness of the whole winter, the cutting winds of March, and even the importunity of numberless visitors and the lengthened misery of a four hours' dinner, were less annoying to his sensibility than the intrigues and dissensions of the English ministers, the incessant manœuvring of Lord Bute to defeat the wishes of his colleagues, the ill-assorted communication with various branches of the government, and the *Egremontage*, as he terms it, of the secretary with whom it was his peculiar province to transact business. "You could not believe," says he to the Duke *de Praslin*, "how troublesome my negotiation here is in all respects; particularly with such a secretary of state as Lord Egremont, and in the moment of a national crisis, when *the prime-mover of the government scarcely dares to act, and cannot venture to shew himself.*"—We extract a passage, which will be regarded as curious, from a letter dated the 16th of September 1762. The writer had then been only five days in England:

"The audience with the King of England took place in his closet, and I was conducted thither and presented, according to custom, by the minister of my department, Lord Egremont, who remained present. His Britannic Majesty received me, in the most flattering manner, said the most obliging things of you, M. le Comte" (the Comte *de Choiseul*, created duke and peer, during this embassy, by the title of Duke *de Praslin*) "of the Duke *de Choiseul*, and of myself. Of the person of the King my master, he spoke with such an openness and effusion of heart, that I perceived something singular in the lively desire which he displayed, not merely that the two courts should return to a good understanding, (which he regards as already done,) but that they should form a close, sincere, and lasting union of system and of confidence. The ministry here have frequently spoken to me in this tone; and if the Duke of Bedford uses the same with you, there is certainly something under it, which I shall endeavour to investigate. My audience was long; and at the end of a quarter of an hour, the King of England talked to me of the preliminaries, to the great astonishment of Lord Egremont, which I did not fail to observe. He told me that, relying on my reputation for openness and probity, of which he had heard from many of his subjects, he thought that he could speak to me as a friend, and as he did to his own ministers; that, since he had been

on the throne, he ardently wished for peace; that with respect to the conditions, he had done all that it was in his power to do, and was not at liberty to alter anything essential in them; that he wanted great dispatch, because, on opening his parliament, he was obliged to announce positively either peace or war; that he saw, with the greatest pleasure, that on the part of my court I raised no difficulty; that, if any more distant court" (alluding probably to Spain) "attempted to fetter ours, he hoped that the King would prevent a delay which would defeat the whole; that I was enough acquainted with the constitution of his country, to know that he informed me of what was true; and that he begged me to render an account to the King of his intentions and his circumstances. He pronounced all this with some embarrassment, but with candor, and with the air of a man who was much impressed with what he was saying. I even perceived that, in speaking to me of the constitution of his country, and of the restraint which it imposes on his operations, his embarrassment increased; he coloured, and appeared to feel inwardly mortified. It is useless to tell you what answer I made, &c. I mingled with all this the praise of his present ministry, which seemed to give great pleasure to Lord Egremont; who, I think, is more attached to his place than the great nobles of England commonly are; and I assured him that the Duke of Bedford would find in our ministers an entire correspondence of sentiments, principles, and proceedings. It was then that the King drew the most flattering portrait, and in truth the most complete likeness, of yourself and the Duke *de Choiseul*. The detail of it I shall spare to your modesty: but it is proper for you to be told that His Britannic Majesty knows and feels perfectly the worth of you both; he said that he was charmed with the nobleness and the rectitude which you had shewn in the negotiation; that you were both real noblemen; and that great Kings ought ever to be thus served. He added expressions very gracious towards his present ministry, and others towards me; and the audience ended with fresh declarations of the desire which he feels to be cordially and indissolubly united with our King."

The Duke frequently expresses his perfect satisfaction in the sincerity of His Britannic Majesty's wishes for peace; which he considers as the only method of emancipating him from the aristocracy, and establishing on lasting foundations the authority of Lord Bute. The letters should by no means escape the attention of our future historians; and they will of course be still more valuable, when accompanied by the contemporaneous official communications made to the French ministry.

In the fourth and last division of these works, we have nine dramatic pieces; which were hastily written in order to be produced at various *fêtes*, and which contributed largely, we have no doubt, to the innocent amusement of the party, though they are by much too slight and temporary to add any lustre to the literary character of the author. One of them

is

is called "*La Revanche du Duc de Nivernois?*" but the only one, which afforded us much amusement, should be called "*La Revanche des François,*" since it avenges the cause of the numerous class of Frenchmen whom we ridicule on our stage for speaking their own language, by exhibiting a "*milord Anglais*" absurdly deficient in the proper pronunciation of the French. Our countrymen might derive from it some good hints of the vices which most easily beset them in attempting French dialogue.

ART. XII. *Allgemeine Pädagogik,* &c.; *i. e.* A General Theory of Education. By J. F. HERBART, Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Göttingen. 8vo. pp. 482. Göttingen. 1806.

IT has of late years been often remarked among us that, if the number of our publications on the subject of Education might serve as a just measure of the attention bestowed on the rising generation, and of the zeal with which their improvement is sought, it would be natural and allowable to look for a rapid progress towards perfection in every public and private seminary for the propagation of knowlege and virtue among our youth. Reasoning on the same ground, what ought we not to expect from our German neighbours; since, for some time past, every Leipzig fair has produced new *systems* of education, and hundreds of volumes for the use of children and their instructors! Though, however, we evidently cannot allege that a necessary connection subsists between the literature of any certain branch of human attainment and the application of it in actual life, yet the prevailing sentiments of respectable writers of an age or country, on so important a topic as education, must be highly deserving of our attention, as peculiarly qualified to cast some light on the characteristic features of that period or nation. We do not, therefore, deem it necessary to apologize to our readers, for prefacing our account of Professor HERBART's System of Education, with a short statement of the principal changes which have taken place in the prevailing ideas on this subject in Germany, during the last century; and for specifying the names of those, to whom their countrymen consider themselves as peculiarly indebted for an improved mode of promoting the welfare and virtue of their offspring. The limits of this article do not permit us to extend our observations to what is usually called the education of the people, and the arrangements made in a great part of Germany for its amelioration; though this branch of the inquiry would be peculiarly worthy of discussion.

Since the time of the ecclesiastical reformation commenced by Luther and Calvin, of which a reform in the schools and in the mode of public and private instruction was an immediate and necessary consequence, few changes had taken place till towards the commencement of the eighteenth century. The public schools continued till then to be conducted in the monastic spirit of the preceding ages, and education as a science may be said to have not yet existed. A poor pittance of Greek and Latin, acquired at a great expence of time and by the exertion of memory alone, under the influence of a barbarous discipline, was the principal result of the liberal education of the age. Private tutors imitated the example of schools, and scarcely considered it as necessary to possess any other knowlege than that which enabled them to translate, to parse, and to scan the poets of Greece and Rome.

In the year 1695, *Augustus Herman Francke*, Professor in the newly-founded university of Halle in Saxony, established a free school; with which he soon afterward united an institution for the education of children in the higher classes of society, and a seminary for school-masters and private tutors. Though the theory of education was little regarded in that establishment, its influence became very extensive, because it opened to the student a wide field of observation, and contributed to propagate the conviction that to educate required considerably more than a capacity for commanding, and for hearing a few lessons. As piety had suggested the first idea of the institution to its founder, this became also its most characteristic feature; which it communicated, through the great number of young men who were prepared in it for their future employments, to public and private instruction in a great part of Germany. That piety was, however, too much mingled with mysticism, and undervalued solid knowlege and intellectual improvement; and though education assumed a new character, its views were not enlarged nor its principles better understood. Greater influence of this kind must be ascribed to the writings of some foreign philosophers; particularly *Locke*'s treatise on the Human Understanding, and afterward *Rousseau*'s Emile. The undeniable though the often slighted merit of the latter work is, that it presents a consistent whole according to a principle laid down at the outset; and in this respect, notwithstanding its absurdities and extravagancies, it is not perhaps surpassed by any other book on the same subject. After having been frequently misapplied and ridiculously followed, it served to produce a conviction of the necessity of bringing harmony and system into all endeavours to form the minds and hearts of youth; and it excited at the same time a much greater attention

tion than had before been allotted to the gradual progress of the human mind, and the necessary care in adapting the measures of instruction to the abilities of the learner. Education now *began* to assume a scientific form, but was full of excentricities, and too much inclined to the sentimental.

A most important period in the *pedagogical* science and art in Germany commenced soon after the middle of the last century; when *J. B. Basedow* pointed out to his countrymen the perverse and unnatural course which till then had been pursued, and promised a total reform. Both his writings and his instructions of future teachers of youth, in an establishment formed for that purpose at Dessau, principally tended to extend the limited sphere within which the education of children had been confined, and to abridge the useless labour imposed on them in the acquisition of knowlege. The novelty of several of his ideas, and the expectation of performing wonders by the application of them, led him and many of his followers to the opposite extreme from the errors which they wished to avoid, and brought on the practice of trifling with instruction, and distracting the attention of young persons by the great variety of subjects which were laid before them. The learned languages were now too generally set aside, and the knowlege of their grammar was considered as an unnecessary incumbrance. The salutary effects of *Basedow*'s exertions, however, overbalanced these temporary injuries. Public attention was directed to this most important subject, reflection was invited, and men of decided talents devoted them with indefatigable industry to inquiries and experiments tending to the improvement of their younger brethren. Psychology was studied with a particular view to education, many of the errors of *Basedow* and his first pupils were gradually corrected by experience, and the safe middle path was discovered and preferred.

In a work which appeared between the years 1786 and 1790 by M. *Campe* and others, under the title of *Revision of the State of Education*, &c. in 16 volumes, was given the result of the principal inquiries and experiments on this subject, up to the period of its publication. In the mean time, the philosophical system of *Kant* had acquired many friends, and extended its influence to all the sciences. The mania for new-modelling every branch of scientific knowlege did not spare that of tuition; and almost all the philosophical systems, which within the last twenty years have succeeded each other so rapidly in Germany, have claimed the peculiar merit of bestowing new improvements on the theory of education, and establishing it on more solid principles than it had ever before

possessed. One of the principal objects of inquiry has been the fundamental principle on which this system ought to be founded. The modern German philosophers reject the pursuit of happiness as the proper principle of moral philosophy: they therefore agree in not admitting it to become, even in the most extensive and most refined sense, the leading idea in the instruction of youth, and have usually substituted either that of *perfection* or that of *moral excellence*. Those who take no side in the contest will probably say that the difference lies rather in the words than the thing itself, and that the youth of Germany have not gained by the numerous publications which have been written on that subject.

It appears, however, that the desire of educating according to a certain system of metaphysics is now abated, and that the contending parties have become more willing to permit education to be neutral. Its good genius will have reason to rejoice when the new language, which has been introduced by the German philosophers, no longer obscures publications which, above all others, ought to possess the merit of clearness and extensive adaptation. German literature contains, perhaps, as rich a fund of excellent materials for the improvement of modes of instruction, as that of any other nation; and more pains have been taken by the literati of that country to arrange and compare them than by those of either France or England. It also deserves to be mentioned that, in all the principal German universities, education forms one of the topics on which lectures are constantly given; and that in many parts establishments are formed, which are supported by the respective governments, for training school-masters for the different classes of society; among which that of *Hanover*, heretofore liberally patronized by His Majesty, was particularly distinguished. We mention these facts without drawing from them a conclusion concerning the actual state of practical education in Germany.

Among the most modern German works on this subject, which have met with decided approbation, that of Dr. *Niemeyer*, under the title of *Principles of Education and Instruction*, deserves honorable distinction; since it unites theory with practical advice, without any mixture of useless speculation, and proceeds from a man of very solid learning and an elegant and liberal mind. Within the last ten or twelve years, also, the ingenious mode of instruction invented by M. *Pestalozzi*, which has excited much attention in France, Denmark, and Sweden, has found many friends and advocates in Germany, and seems to be still gaining ground.

After this long, though we hope not useless, preamble, we must proceed to state our opinion of Professor HERBART's work,

which announces itself as a *general theory*. Every attempt to give a scientific form to the maxims of tuition, and to rescue this most important branch of human knowlege from its degraded state as a collection of rules and devices without a centre to which they should all tend, or a connection which should unite them into one consistent whole, seems to us meritorious; because we are convinced that, from a sound theory, education must expect its most essential improvements, and that the neglect of theory is one of the principal causes of the want of success in the practice. It is most necessary to remind those, who are destined to undertake the care of the rising generation, that now to correct a fault as it makes its appearance; then to enjoin a virtue, when an opportunity offers; here to impart some kind of knowlege, which strikes as useful or ornamental; and there to cherish and cultivate a peculiar talent, which promises to reward the pains bestowed on it;—that all this does not deserve the name of education, unless it be a part of a regular system, the whole of which is constantly before the tutor's mind, and guides him in the choice of his measures. We consider it as a lamentable circumstance, that more system prevails in any merchant's counting-house in London, than (we will not say in most *families*, where the parents or servants can scarcely be expected to have formed and to observe general and enlarged views, but) in most *schools*, in which we have a right to look for an union of arrangements and labours, mutually supporting each other in the promotion of the common object: viz. not the learning of Greek or Latin, or Writing, or Drawing, or Dancing, but the formation of the mind and heart. Masters and governesses usually teach, and correct, and advise, as they may happen to deem it desirable, and leave the result to chance; hence they justly become doubtful of their own success, and begin to think contemptuously of education, as it is said that some physicians think of their own profession.

By these observations, however, we by no means intend to point out Professor HERBART's system to British *pedagogues*, as the oracle from which they may derive all that we wish them to possess. We are strongly attached to the main design which the author intended to fulfil, and are sensible of the great acuteness which he has evinced in the attempt: but we cannot approve the course which he has taken, nor compliment him on the success of the result. We shall probably incur the risk of being considered as extremely unphilosophical by him, if ever these remarks should reach his eye, for giving it as our opinion that, with much less art and reference to speculative philosophy, a system equally solid and more useful than that

which he has offered may be constructed; and that we regard the plan, which forms the ground-work of Dr. *Niemeyer's* work, as far preferable to that of Prof. H. A comparison of the object of education with the acknowleged laws of the human mind may not have so scientific an appearance, as a strict deduction of truths from one single principle: but it will not stand less firm, and it will lead more easily to the application of its precepts.

Prof. H. differs from those of his predecessors who considered *moral* perfection as the only worthy and leading object of education; and he unites with it another, which he terms *the harmonious multiplicity of interests:* which, however, he places under the guardianship and at the command of religion and virtue. His expression, of which we have given the most literal translation, we conceive to mean neither more nor less than an harmonious cultivation of the mental faculties. We feel no objection to the great purpose of education being expressed in this way, but the idea on which Mr. H. grounds the choice of his principle appears to us highly reprehensible. The person who educates, he says, stands in the place of his pupil as *he* will be when arrived at a mature age; and whatever objects of pursuit, therefore, the pupil may at that time choose, the tutor must have them in view in his instruction, and must prepare the mind for their attainment: consequently, as human pursuits are very various, the care of education must be equally diversified. This is placing education very low, and assigning to it a very vague sphere. *Rousseau* is scarcely a greater slave to his pupil than Prof. HERBART's tutor must be. Yet the whole tenor of the work convinces us that its author is very far from sanctioning any improper interpretation which may be made of this strain of reasoning, (immoral pursuits are in course out of the question;) and he endeavours to ward off the reproach of recommending or promoting a superficial mode of education: but the necessity of doing this might have suggested to him doubts of the propriety of setting out from ideas that are so liable to be misunderstood. We cannot deny to education the right of limiting our future sphere of wishes and designs, even farther than by inculcating the principles of religion and morality. The most exalted ideas of the importance and the effect of the treatment of young persons always animate this author's inquiries; the object, which he holds out to the guides and instructors of youth, is very high; and the minute distinctions, by which he endeavours to explain the hidden causes of the failure of pedagogical endeavours, are often very ingenious and essential: but we have been struck with the inequality of the different parts of his inquiry. Some branches of education,

by no means unimportant, particularly in an intellectual view, —such as the proper treatment of memory, and the best mode of guiding the imagination, — are scarcely introduced, even incidentally.

M. HERBART strongly advises an early acquaintance with the classics, particularly the Greek authors, because he supposes that in them alone, as pictures of the juvenile age of mankind, the juvenile mind can be sincerely interested. On this account he proposes that, at least in private education, the first classic book that is put into the hands of boys of eight or nine years old should be the *Odyssey*, in the perusal of which, an attention to precise grammatical analysis ought to be omitted. His own success has convinced him of the practicability and utility of this plan.

We may recommend to the attention of all persons who are engaged in educating young people, the remarks which Prof. H. makes on several occasions concerning the different shades and gradations which discipline ought to assume, according to the circumstances under which it is to operate; and on the watchfulness with which those who conduct measures of rigour ought to observe the changes which are constantly taking place in the minds of children. It is not, indeed, easy to calculate the mischief that is produced by the total neglect of the natural progress of the sentiments and feelings, in proportion as age and experience advance. Numerous schools labour, in this respect, under great disadvantages: but how much might not even there be done, if the labour and time bestowed on this object were not deemed *unprofitably* spent!—If these and some others of the observations which we have incidentally made, on the subject of education, should appear trite, it will perhaps be a sufficient apology for them, to allege that they cannot be more trite than the faults to which we have alluded are common.

ART. XIII. *Discours sur les Progrès des Sciences*, &c.; *i.e.* Discourses on the Progress of Science, Letters, and the Arts from the Year 1789 to the present Time; or a Statement made by the Institute of France to His Majesty the Emperor and King; with Notes relative to the Literati who are mentioned in the Reports, and a Specification of their Works; in which, Mention is made of the Publications of Holland during this Interval on these Subjects. 8vo. pp. 440. Printed in Holland. 1809.

THE Emperor Napoleon wishes to appear (and indeed is, to a certain extent,) a patron of science and literature; and therefore it is contrived, by that sort of minor diplomatic arrangement which is understood and practised as well in the new court

court of France as in the old courts of Europe, that a deputation from the Classes of the Institute should occasionally wait on him with complimentary addresses. In order to give a representation of the progress and state of mathematical science, M. *Delambre*, a man of real eminence, is selected; and he delivers a short oration, in which Frenchmen of science have at least their full measure of commendation, and the *Hero and Pacificator* obtains his tribute of incense, but in which our astronomers and philosophers are almost entirely overlooked. M. *Delambre* well apprehended the nature and duties of his deputation; it was his office to talk, for a quarter of an hour, in somewhat of a gentleman-like style, on abstruse matters, and not to forget the Emperor Napoleon.

As this little *exposé* was destined to embrace a great variety of subjects, Geometry, Algebra, Trigonometry, and the Indeterminate Analysis; the three Calculi, differential, integral, and that of variations; Astronomy, plane and physical; Dynamics, and Discoveries maritime and terrestrial; the speaker was obliged to mention every thing in a slight and superficial manner; and on that account we should regard this part of the work as totally useless, if it were not for the appended notes, the matter of which is four times as great as that of the discourse. M. *Delambre*, however, is not the author of the notes, but *J. L. Kesteloot*, M. D. of the Royal Society of Leyden; who collected these addresses from the *Moniteur*, and formed them into the present volume. This learned gentleman seems violently enamoured of the speeches pronounced before the Council of State; and, if asked for his opinion, 'he would not hesitate to give them place and rank among the best compositions that have appeared for these twenty years.' In our judgment, however, not only is the report of M. *Delambre* unsatisfactory, but it can be understood only by men of science, to whom it is superfluous. The notes form a tolerably good catalogue of scientific books that have been published during the last twenty years: but the subjoined criticisms are all in the laudatory style. We have, indeed, rather an interesting abstract of the travels of M. *de Humboldt* in America.

We are very well disposed to concede that France, at the present time, contains many highly distinguished men of science, and also that *Bonaparte* patronizes them: but the allegations in the adulatory compositions before us go farther, and seem to assert that the patronage of the Emperor has created them. This is not by any means exactly the case. When *Bonaparte* placed himself at the head of the French empire, the most distinguished mathematicians and astronomers, *La Grange*, *La Place*, *Le Gendre*, *La Lande*, and *De Lambre*, had achieved the

the most important of their labours. These men were formed, if formed by any sort of government, under the French monarchy; and we think that Lewis the Fourteenth would never have so blundered in an attempt to patronize science, as to have created M. *La Place, Chancellor of the Senate.*

M. *Delambre* having finished his oration, M. *Cuvier* undertakes to present the Emperor with a sketch of the progress of physical science. This gentleman is well qualified to give respectability to the scene in which he was to act: his extensive knowlege eminently endowed him for the office of the historian of knowlege; and from his well-known candour and liberality, it might be expected that he would not arrogate to his countrymen the sole merit of the advancement of natural philosophy. After some observations on the magnitude of his task, he remarks that the prodigious number of facts, which constitute this branch of science, seem all to be ultimately referable to what he calls molecular attraction; and he therefore selects this as 'the most convenient clue to guide him through the immense labyrinth.' The two immediate effects of molecular attraction, are crystallization and chemical affinity; which form, he says, 'two sciences entirely new, and produced within the period of which we have to render an account.' With respect to crystallization he is nearly correct, and he may be justified in the exclusive praise which he bestows on M. *Haüy:* but we cannot agree with him in the other part of his assertion; because, howmuchsoever we may admire the researches of M. *Berthollet*, we can neither admit his hypothesis to be proved, nor, if it were so, could we forget the preceding labours of *Bergmann* and Kirwan. It is, moreover, evident that neither M. *Cuvier* nor his commentator was acquainted with some of the late experiments that have been made in this country, on the subject of affinities.

The reporter next undertakes to give some account of the discoveries with regard to the imponderable agents, as he styles them, light, heat, and Galvanism. The subject of light he dispatches in a few lines, simply referring to the labours of Herschell: but the modern discoveries in heat are detailed more at length; and we are told that they 'constitute a body of doctrine entirely new, of which the philosophers of the first half of the eighteenth century had not even an idea.' We are, however, obliged to dissent from the speaker at the very outset, when he states that the first germs of this doctrine originated with Black and *Wilcke*; and we cannot admit the propriety of thus classing together, without discrimination, the names of two persons whose pretensions are so different. Some of *Wilcke*'s individual experiments and calculations are useful, but

but never was the merit of any discovery more decidedly due to one man than in the case of Dr. Black on the subject of heat. M. *Cuvier*, however, does not omit to pay a just tribute to the claims of our countryman, Mr. Dalton.—When treating on Galvanism, he selects the names of *Galvani* himself, of *Volta*, *Ritter*, Nicholson, and Davy, as those who have been the greatest promoters of the science. It is not a little remarkable that, in this branch of philosophy, no very capital discovery has proceeded from France, although it would appear that it has been assiduously cultivated in that country.—In the notes of the editor, which are very copious, and contain much valuable matter, we have a tolerably full account of Mr. Davy's discoveries on the composition of the alkalies and earths.

M. *Cuvier* then proceeds to the consideration of what he calls proper chemistry; which, like some of the preceding branches of science, may be regarded as almost entirely of modern date, so much has it been modified by the discoveries of the last 30 or 40 years. He particularly notices the experiments of Black, *Bayen*, Cavendish, and *Monge*, as having led this great revolution: but, he adds, 'it is the good fortune of having united into one focus all these insulated rays, which constituted the unrivalled glory of *Lavoisier*.' The combination of the French chemists to form the new nomenclature, thus laying aside all their individual feelings of emulation and envy, and contributing to promote the doctrine of *Lavoisier*, the author calls 'a *touching* spectacle, of which the history of the sciences offers few examples.'—In general, the remarks on the new nomenclature are just; and we think that the framers of it are intitled to all the commendation which has been bestowed on them. It was certainly a noble effort of genius, and one of those which probably could not have been effectually made in any country except France.

Part II. of the report contains an account of the progress of natural history; a division of science which is defined to be 'the application of the general laws of natural philosophy and chemistry to the different phænomena which are manifested by the several bodies of nature.' Meteorology, mineralogy, and animal and vegetable physiology, form the most interesting departments of the science, and those to which the author principally confines his detail. With respect to the first, he particularly notices the curious investigations that have lately been made on the subject of stones that are supposed to have fallen from the atmosphere, in which the name of Mr. Howard holds a conspicuous rank. Physiology is subdivided into three branches; chemistry, which determines the composition of the body; anatomy, which describes its form; and dynamics, by which

we

we ascertain its moving forces. The first of these, it is remarked, belongs entirely to the present epoch; and Priestley, *Ingenhousz*, *Lavoisier*, *Fourcroy*, *Sennebier*, *Spallanzani*, and the younger *Saussure*, are selected as those philosophers whose labours have more especially led to its developement. We admit that all the authors here named deserve a greater or less share of commendation: but we cannot avoid remarking that the name of Black ought to have been placed very high in this list, since to him we unquestionably owe the discovery of the generation of carbonic acid in the process of respiration: a discovery which, together with those of Dr. Priestley on the same subject, in point both of time and of importance, have a decided priority in the history of chemical physiology.—Mr. Home is the only Englishman who has the honour of being enumerated among the modern anatomists; and we do not meet with a single one of our countrymen among those who are said to have contributed to the improvement of vegetable physiology. Is it to be believed that M. *Cuvier* was ignorant of the writings of Mr. A. Knight, or of the Phytologia of Dr. Darwin?

We next find, very properly introduced, some account of the travellers who have added so much to natural history by their researches into the productions of foreign countries. 'The astonishing expedition into Egypt,' as M. *Cuvier* not unaptly styles it, takes the lead; yet this is a subject which we are almost surprised that he should venture to obtrude on the recollection of the Emperor. Among the botanists, properly so called, we meet with the name of Dr. Smith, but it is enumerated among a number of others, without any particular mark of distinction, although certainly intitled to appropriate notice; while, on the contrary, M. *Jussieu* is mentioned as one 'who has formed, in the sciences of observation, an epoch perhaps as important as that of the chemistry of *Lavoisier* in the sciences of experiment.' The reporter concludes the list by some remarks on comparative anatomy, and takes to himself a share of merit in this department to which he may very justly lay claim.

After having treated of the sciences individually, M. *Cuvier* offers some general observations on the very rapid advances which they have lately made, and on the probability that their progress will continue with equal or even greater celerity. Of course, in his opinion, France has led and will lead the van; and 'the age of Napoleon' is the consummation of all that is great and glorious, not less in arts than in arms. As we look at these things in a somewhat different point of view, we cannot admit these assumptions, but, on the contrary, boldly assert that many of the most important discoveries in chemistry, anatomy,

tomy, and general physics, have originated in England; though, we grant that, in some departments, our continental neighbours have outstript us, and in almost all have afforded very important aid. On another point we dissent still more decidedly from M. *Cuvier*; we maintain that 'the age of Napoleon' has not been, and is not likely to be, the age of science. It is, indeed, very remarkable that the great discoveries, which have been made in France, were either accomplished before the revolution or during its progress; and that, since the establishment of the empire, and the foundation of the magnificent institutions which form a part of its costume, its great men (at least with very few exceptions) appear contented to live on their former fame, as if they fancied themselves raised to the highest pinnacle of celebrity, and beyond the reach of rivalship.

We must not omit to notice the conclusion of this address. It seems that His Imperial Majesty had signified to the class of the Institute, that he was willing to grant any request which they might offer; and we cannot but confess that they have exhibited in their reply not less moderation than judgment. They beg to submit to him some ideas for the regulation of the method of giving instruction in the rudiments of natural philosophy, and for the more wide diffusion of the knowlege of the mechanical arts and of agriculture. They also suggest to the Emperor, that he should issue directions for the formation of a new system of natural history; which might, in the present age, be made as much superior to that of Aristotle, as their Sovereign is superior to Alexander the Great!

On the whole, M. *Cuvier*'s report is learned and interesting, though in some places disfigured by bombast and adulation. The notes are valuable, and prove M. *Kesteloot* to be well versed in modern science.

This volume forms only the first part of the work, and it is intimated that two more will follow.

ART. XIV. *Supplément à la Théorie de l'Action Capillaire.* &c. i. e. A Supplement to the Theory of Capillary Action. By M. LA PLACE. 4to. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. 6d.

THIS is properly a second supplement, though the preceding similar addition on the same subject, which we mentioned in our 53d vol. p. 483. was called by its author a supplement to the 10th volume of his *Mécanique Céleste*. The scientific world is, undoubtedly, much indebted to M. LA PLACE for all his communications: but we should have been glad to have seen this theory of capillary action not appended, as it now is, to his

Physical

Physical Astronomy. No proper connection subsists, for mere differential expressions cannot make that connection, between the two investigations; and a cause of separation may be stated, in the different degrees of certainty appertaining to them. Most beautifully and satisfactorily has the author exhibited, traced, and developed, many of the causes of the heavenly phænomena: but to several of his discussions and results in the capillary theory, assent will come, if it come at all, tardily and reluctantly. M. La Place himself seems to think, by the very fact of this second supplement, which is superior in size to the original, that the subject is liable to some uncertainty; and we cannot but suspect that the consideration of it has not been matured in his mind by frequent meditation. Most of the other parts of his astonishing work have been, in some sort or shape, presented to the world in previous papers inserted in the volumes of the Academy of Sciences: but, unless we are much deceived on the theory of capillary attraction he had published no prior essays; and although the discussion, from its nicety and perplexity, is well worthy of M. La Place's genius, still we cannot forbear repeating our wish that it had not been fastened on the system of the sun and the planets.

Of the first part of this theory of capillary attraction, we have already given an account, and not a very scanty one; yet, for obvious reasons, we doubt whether it was satisfactory. While the learned would refer to the work itself, the superficial would esteem the account of it not sufficiently familiar and explicit;—and what shall be done with this second part? It contains, at page 15, 'a new mode of considering the capillary action:' but the explanation of this new mode is not easily compressed, and it would occupy considerable space. M. *Gay-Lussac* has also furnished the author with many curious experiments: but these, it is plain, do not readily admit of abridgment. Some of M. La Place's inferences, however, as being of general concern and easily understood, may be stated.

He is of opinion that the law of attraction, decreasing with extreme rapidity, and being at the smallest distances imperceptible, will account for various phænomena: it may be considered as the source of chemical affinities; like gravity, it stops not at the surfaces of bodies, but penetrates beyond contact. Thence depends the influence of masses in chemical phænomena; or that capacity of saturation, of which M. *Berthollet* has explained the effects. Connected, then, with this law, is the philosophy of chemistry, which endeavours to account for the internal constitution of bodies.

M. La

M. La Place continues farther to argue, more pleasantly indeed than satisfactorily, concerning this internal constitution of bodies. The molecules of a body are so placed, according to him, that their resistance to a change is the greatest. Disturb, a little, a molecule from its position, and it tends to recover that position; this constitutes elasticity: but, when the molecules undergo a considerable change, then they take other new states of stable equilibrium. The hardness and viscosity of bodies are nothing else than the resistances of molecules to changes of the state of equilibrium.—Why does heat render bodies less viscous? The expansive force of heat, acting in opposition to the attractive force of the molecules, diminishes their viscosity and adherence. If the molecules of a body offer but slight resistance to the *displacing* forces, the body becomes liquid.—All this reads very smoothly and pleasantly: but what else is it than a mode of arranging and re-stating known facts? The existence of attractive and repulsive forces is purely hypothetical; and we shall be miserably deluded by words, if we fancy that, by phrases of philosophy like the preceding, we distinctly perceive the causes of the fluidity of bodies, and the mode of their operation.

It is, however, undoubtedly true, as M. La Place observes, that the consideration of the stability of the equilibrium of a system of molecules, re-acting the one on the other, is very useful in the explanation of several phænomena; and the late experiments of some of our own countrymen confirm the necessity of such consideration: but the inquiry is difficult and intricate. The form of the elementary molecules, the laws of their attractive force, the repulsive forces of heat, and other forces not yet ascertained, must be all admitted into the calculation, and, when admitted, will perplex it. Indeed, partly from our ignorance of the intensity and the laws of many causes, and partly from their extreme complication, phænomena cannot be easily submitted to a mathematical analysis:

'At the surfaces of liquids, (says M. La Place,) the molecular attraction, modified by the curvature of the surfaces and of the tubes which contain them, produces the capillary phænomena; thus these phænomena, and all those which chemistry presents, are attached to the same law, of which the existence cannot be doubted. Some natural philosophers have attributed the capillary phænomena to the adhesion of liquid molecules, either to each other or to the sides of the containing vessels: but this cause is insufficient. In fact, if we suppose the surface of water contained in a glass tube to be horizontal, and level with the water of the vessel in which the other extremity of the tube is plunged, the viscousness of the liquid, and its adherence to the tube, ought not to *curve* that surface and render it concave. For this effect, it is necessary to admit the attraction of the

the superior part of the tube, which is not immediately in contact with the liquid. Besides, the surface of the liquid inclosed in the tube would, when it is concave, be drawn vertically downwards, by the vertical columns of the liquid adhering to it; and when this surface is convex, as in that of mercury in a glass tube, and of a drop of water at the extremity of a tube, it would be pressed perpendicularly, in each of its points, by the weight of the superior columns of the liquid. This surface would not, then, be the same in these two cases, and the capillary phænomena would not follow the same laws; which deduction is contrary to experience. It must therefore be acknowleged that these phænomena do not solely depend on the action of contact, but on an attraction extending beyond, and decreasing with an extreme rapidity.'

M. La Place then contends that the viscosity of fluids, instead of being the efficient cause of capillary phænomena, is a disturbing cause; and that those phænomena are strictly conformable to the theory only in fluids that are endowed with a perfect fluidity. He moreover adds that to the viscocity of water are owing several considerable differences which are observed by philosophers, between the heights of that liquid, in capillary glass tubes of the same diameter.

In the latter part, the author developes very justly, from the history of the infinitesimal calculus, the reasons which induced former philosophers to endeavour to explain the forms of fluids as arising from certain forces of tension and elasticity. He then notices the unsatisfactory investigations of Segner; and lastly those of Dr. Thomas Young, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for 1805.

Art. XV. *Supplément au III^me Volume*, &c.; *i. e.* A Supplement to the Third Volume of the Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By M. La Place. 4to. pp. 24. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s.

We have here a short but by no means an unimportant addendum to the second book of the *Mécanique Céleste*. In that book, the author discussed the important question of the Orbit of a body revolving round a primary, but disturbed in its motion by the action of other bodies. M. La Place's mode of determining the position of the disturbed body is by assigning three expressions for the radius vector, the longitude, and the latitude. These expressions are not finite, but under the form of a series, the terms of which involve the sines and cosines of the time: but they also involve quantities which are considered as constant, namely the six elements of the orbit, the axis major, the excentricity, the inclination, the

longitude of the node, the longitude of the epoch, and the longitude of the perihelion. Now these elements are not all accurately constant, but are subject to slight variations. It becomes, then, a problem of no inconsiderable moment, to assign expressions for estimating the values of these variations: for then, at a given time, we can correct the elements, and substitute them so corrected into the three expressions for the radius vector, longitude, and latitude. The differentials of the six elements are stated in the *Mécanique Céleste*, Liv. 2. pages 327, 347, 348, 363, and 365; and the differential of the major axis* was originally given by *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs for 1781, pp. 219, and 236. It is of this form; $d\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = 2.\,dR$, where R is a quantity that can be resolved into a series of sines and cosines of the form $m.\,k.\,\cos.\,(gt + A)$, R and A being functions of the six elements of the orbit. Now M. *La Grange* observed, from the expression for R and from its differential dR being restricted to the co-ordinates of the disturbed orbit, that the expression $d\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)$ could only contain terms of the form

$$\pm 2\lambda A.\ \begin{matrix}\cos.\\ \sin.\end{matrix}\left\{\lambda p + \mu p' + \&c.\right\}$$

whence he concluded that the variations of $\frac{1}{a}$ could only be periodic, and consequently that neither the mean distance nor the velocity of the mean motion was subject to any kind of secular variation.

At p. 330, &c. in proving the same important result, M. La Place pursues the same track of reasoning: but this result, according to the proofs of these two great mathematicians, is to be admitted as true only when the squares and products of the disturbing masses are neglected. M. *Poisson*, however, has extended the truth of the result to the case in which the squares of the disturbing masses are not neglected; and one object of the present supplement is to demonstrate this material fact. The proof is facilitated by the new forms which M. La Place here gives for the variations of the elements, nearly after the following manner:

* The symbol Δ, used by *La Grange*, is the inverse of the mean distance, and corresponds to $\frac{1}{a}$ used by La Place; and the symbol Ω corresponds to the R of the *Mécanique Céleste*.

If

If ζ represents the mean motion of the planet m, then it is shewn, p. 331. of *Mécanique Céleste*, that

$$\zeta = 3.\iint andt.\, d\,R.$$

In the tract before us, the author takes the finite variation of this expression, makes R to vary only what is relative to m, and for the finite differences or variations of the axis major (a), the excentricity (e), the longitude of the perihelion (ϖ), &c. substitutes the integrals of da, de, $d\varpi$, &c. He then, from the value of R, shews that $d\,\delta R$ contains only periodic quantities, or that it is nothing when we regard only secular quantities of the order of the squares of the planetary masses; and the same he proves to be true for $d\,R \int d\,R$: consequently, since

$$\zeta = 3.\iint andt.\, d\,R$$
$$\delta\zeta = 3\, an.\iint dt.\, d.\,\delta R + 3n^2 \iint (ndt.\, d\,R. \int d\,R)$$

or the variation $\delta\zeta$ is nothing, considering only the secular quantities which, by a double integration, acquire a denominator of the order of the square of the planetary masses.

The latter part of this supplement is occupied in the correction of an error. In the theory of Jupiter and Saturn, [*Mécanique Céleste*, Liv. vii.] estimation is made of the fifth powers of the excentricities and of the inclinations of the Orbits; and the terms dependent on these powers were computed by M. *Burckhardt*. M. La Place, however, has since ascertained that the inequality resulting from these terms had been taken with a contrary sign; and he here rectifies the formulæ. He observes; 'hence results a slight change in the mean motions and the epochs of these planets [Jupiter and Saturn]; and this change accords with the observation which Ebn-Junis made at Cairo in 1007, from their mutual conjunction: an observation which does not differ more from the formulæ, than by a quantity much less than the error to which it is liable. The antient observations cited by Ptolemy are equally represented by my formulæ. This agreement shews that the mean motions of two of the largest bodies of the solar system are at present well known, and have not undergone, since the days of Hipparchus, any sensible alteration; and it ensures for a long time, the accuracy of the tables which M. *Bouvard* has constructed after my theory, and which the Board of Longitude has just published.'

ART. XVI. *Voyage par terre de Santo Domingo*, &c.; *i. e.* Travels from the Capital of the Spanish Part of Saint Domingo to Cape François, the Capital of the French Part of that Island; with a Report of the State of the Mines of the Spanish Colony, translated from Don *Juan Nieto*, Mineralogist to His Catholic Majesty. To which is subjoined a Detail under the Title of *My return to France*. By DORVO SOULASTRE, formerly Advocate and ex-Commissary of the Government at St. Domingo. 8vo. pp. 407. Paris. 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 10s.

HAD we not been aware of the existence in Paris, as well as in London, of the precious art of book-making, this publication would have let us into the secret. M. SOULASTRE dedicates his book, with no little appearance of consequence, to Prince *Cambacérès*; and he adds an introduction which, like the title, is calculated to convey the idea that the work consists of a description of a journey through the interior of St. Domingo. Of a thick volume, however, only 89 pages are appropriated to that subject; a few are added on the state of the mines; and the remaining three fourths, intitled "*Mon retour en France*," contain a visit to the isle of Cuba, where the author, observing the tomb-stone of Captain *Ducloz*, cannot refrain from devoting 173 pages to that gentleman's history. The materials, therefore, which ought to have been compressed into a small pamphlet, are thus spun out into an 8vo volume; and the reader, who is deliberately searching for an addition to his stock of geographical and statistical information, finds himself transported into the regions of imagination, and his sympathy assailed by a tale of romantic adventures.

Nevertheless, that part of the book which treats of the island of St. Domingo is not altogether deficient in interest. The author was an Army-Commissary in the small expedition which sailed from Brest for St. Domingo, in February 1798, under General *Hédouville*. They reached their destination, the town of St. Domingo, in safety, and marched across the island in a north-west direction to Cape François, having traversed nearly the whole of the Spanish quarter. The reason for sending the expedition to a harbour at such a distance from the Cape was to shew the inhabitants of the Spanish quarter (then lately ceded to France, and a cession which was by no means popular,) that a French force had arrived, and was acquainted with the roads and passes. Ten days after the termination of this march, an earthquake took place at the Cape, which the author thus describes: (page 22.)

'On the preceding evening, the clouds had sunk extremely low, the horizon appeared close to us, and the heat had become insupportable. We

We could not be said to breathe, we panted; and although not making the least movement, we were covered with copious perspiration, which ran off at the points of our fingers. We remained in this painful condition till one o'clock in the morning, when the want of air became complete, and our difficulty in breathing was similar to that of an animal placed under an air-pump. The consternation now became general: every one ran from his residence, and fled either into the streets or the open country. We heard from a distance the lowing of cattle, the howling of dogs, and plaintive cries from every breathing animal. Gradual shocks were then felt from east to west during thirty-nine seconds. Several walls fell, some houses were shattered, springs were dried up in some places, and reappeared in others. After all was quiet in the earth, it thundered, and a smart degree of cold ensued, followed by a very heavy fall of rain.'

It appears that the French were greatly struck with the fertility of this island. Throughout their whole march, they did not see a single barren spot: but the ground was every where covered either with grass or with beautiful trees. Nowhere could nature be more rich or more splendid, but nowhere could her stores be less improved by art; and in the course of the first ninety miles, they saw only one village and a few detached habitations. The face of the country, though often hilly, discovered many extensive plains; and it is watered by numerous streams, and by four large rivers, the Ozanna, Isabella, Grand Yacqui, and Yuna: but all these advantages are lost at present; the inhabitants cultivate nothing except for the supply of their immediate wants, and they have no trade but in cattle, which roam at large in these vast pastures, and attain a size that is seldom equalled in Europe. The earth abounds with mines of gold, and of various other metals. The French found several families occupied in separating the grains of gold from the sands of the Rio Verde; and the report of the mineralogist, *Nieto*, mentions with confidence several gold mines imperfectly wrought, which seemed to him '*de la plus grand richesse.*' M. SOULASTRE, strongly impressed with the advantages that may be derived from a spirited improvement of St. Domingo, recommends the adoption of speedy measures to that effect. He advises that the bay of Samana should be surveyed, and a harbour constructed in it; that the inland communication by roads and canals should be improved; and that the mines should be wrought on the European plan.

The Spanish settler (for he has no title to the name of *planter*) consumes his time in great indolence and poverty. A wretched cabin, with hammocks slung at the corners, a few spots of ground cultivated for vegetables or tobacco, and some tattered clothes, constitute the sum of his property. His wife works while he reclines at ease, and it is even too much trouble for him to attend

to his cattle. The negroes in the Spanish quarter of St. Domingo are, for the most part, free: the Spanish law favours their emancipation by redemption; and the incorrigible indolence of the settlers prevents a demand for slaves for any other than domestic purposes.—This country is subject, like the rest of the West Indies, to sudden inundations in the rainy season. The rivers rise in a few hours to the height of their banks, and, overflowing these barriers, spread their waters across the neighbouring plains. The method of passing them is curious: two sticks are fastened crosswise to a cow-hide, the sides of which are raised so as to form a kind of canoe: on this frail skiff the traveller's baggage is placed in the first instance, and next the traveller himself; who preserves his balance by taking hold of a stick with each hand, and keeping himself in a sitting posture. Three men swim beside the canoe for the purpose of guiding it, and the traveller's horses follow their master, by swimming cross behind the canoe.—In course, the spacious harbour at the town of Santo Domingo could not fail to attract the attention of so vigilant an observer as M. SOULASTRE. He terms it *magnificent*; and he has no doubt that, if it had been in the possession of the French, the bar which obstructs the entrance of vessels of above twelve feet draught could long since have been removed. This harbour extends two leagues inland; it is wider than that of Brest; and it has four fathoms of water to the extent of half a league. Were the bar removed, the author declares that the harbour would not be inferior to that of the Havannah.

M. SOULASTRE does not enter into any particular detail of the proceedings of General *Hédouville* in St. Domingo: but, after having briefly mentioned the inutility of resistance to *Toussaint*, and the leave consequently given to the individuals belonging to the expedition to quit the island, he informs us that he took his passage in a schooner for Cuba. Before he reached Batabano in Cuba, the vessel was captured by three New Providence privateers; and, after some detention, the crew were put ashore on a spot which appeared to be a part of the main land of Cuba, but which they had the mortification to find was an island. Here they suffered greatly from thirst and hunger, being obliged to pass the night on trees, from which they heard the hideous noise of the American crocodiles; and they were so stung by musquitoes that their features became undiscernible, and they were able to know each other only by their clothes and the sound of their voices. At last, they accomplished their escape to the main land on a raft.

We have mentioned nearly all of this writer's observations on St. Domingo which can interest the general reader; and the rest

rest of his remarks are local. His personal adventures do not seem deserving of farther notice; and we cannot recommend to the public attention a book of which the substance proves so different from its title.

ART. XVII. *Histoire Chevaleresque des Maures de Grenade,* &c.; i. e. A Chivalric History of the Moors of Grenada, translated from the Spanish of *Gines Perez de Hita;* preceded by some Reflections on the Mussulmans of Spain: with Notes historical and literary, by A. M. SANE'. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 638. Paris. 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 16s.

THE original work of *Perez de Hita,* of which the present is an abridged translation, has been known in Spain during two centuries. It consists of a collection of tales on subjects belonging to the history of the Moors in that country, on a plan similar to that which we have seen adopted at a late date in France by the popular M. *Florian;* the characters introduced being real personages, and the events described having also some foundation in authentic records, but the concomitant circumstances,—such as the harangues of the principal actors, the behaviour of the spectators, and other parts of ornamental superstructure,—being altogether the offspring of imagination.

It has already been observed by Mr. Hayley that the history of the Moors in Spain would furnish favourable subjects for heroic poetry; and we may add that an analysis of their national character would be matter of curious research to the philosopher. That character would be found to combine a variety of apparent contradictions, which can be solved only by attending to the long duration of the residence of these Moors in Spain, and to the changes produced in a people by diversity of temper in their sovereigns. In one age, we see the Moors so greatly improved beyond their gothic contemporaries as to cultivate the elegant arts, and to construct those edifices which are still the proudest monuments of Spain; and in another we discover them to be so infatuated as to remain immersed in their nocturnal revels, while a conquering enemy is at the walls of their capital. We are induced, at one time, to regard them as considerably advanced in civilization, when we find them granting freedom and respectability to the weaker sex: but they soon betray the rude passions of barbarians in their factions and civil wars, and in their reluctance to suspend domestic contest for a single season, even when it was obvious that their only chance of safety lay in cordial and intimate union.

While the habits of the Moors, in civil life, differed from those of the Christians in a manner that bespoke distinct ancestry and religion, their warlike exercises and amusements were the same. The practice of tournaments, being of gothic origin, was probably adopted by the Moors from their Christian neighbours: but it coincided so happily with the Moorish characteristic of excellence in horsemanship, as speedily to become identified with their national institutions. Spain accordingly abounded in champions. The number of its independent sovereignties, and the emulation of two hostile nations, multiplied single combats in all quarters; and the romantic exploits of these warriors became the favourite themes of encomium with their poets.

This state of society is favourable to the developement of those characters in which poetry delights: but, notwithstanding the magnificent declamation of the present French translator, we cannot admit that his volumes either possess interest in themselves, or do justice to their subject. It is amusing to see how much M. SANÉ labours, in his introduction, to attach consequence to his book. The warfare between the Moors and the Spaniards lasted during eight centuries; a circumstance which most people would be disposed to call a dreadful calamity, but which, according to M. SANÉ, is a *lutte genereuse*, 'a generous struggle between two parties contending for the *sweetest possessions* of mankind.' We agree with him in considering the expulsion of the Moors as a great national misfortune to Spain: but we cannot think, as he sometimes appears to do, that their invasion of the peninsula is to be regarded as an advantage. His words are (p. 38.) 'Spain owes them eternal gratitude. The paradise of Grenada (as the Moors still term it) was a hive in which the bees never intermitted their labours. This was what the Arabs did for their new country, and the remembrance of their actions is inextinguishable.'—These observations would be commendable, were they the liberal effort of a philosophic mind to render justice to an injured people: but we are not at liberty to ascribe such disinterested motives to M. SANÉ's panegyrics. He had translated a book about the Moors of Spain, and he must therefore shew in his preface that the Moors of Spain were the most interesting of nations.

As a specimen of the work, the abstract of a challenge and single combat will be perfectly sufficient.

Boadillin having succeeded his father Muley Hazen on the throne of Grenada, his accession was signalized by magnificent rejoicings; in the midst of which, the Grand Master of Calatrava, Don Rodriguez Telles Giron, appeared at the head of his troops, and ravaged the beautiful plain of Grenada. Not satisfied

satisfied with an acquisition of booty, he was desirous of breaking a lance in contact with the knights of that city, and dispatched his squire with a letter to the Moorish King to that effect. This letter was read aloud to the court; the challenge was received with joy; and so eager were the surrounding warriors to engage the Christian chief, that it was necessary to decide the question by lot. Muça was the fortunate man. The combatants then took the field, each superbly equipped; and the Queen and the court-ladies contemplated the scene from gilded balconies. The fight began; the knights rushed against each other, and broke their lances. On a second shock, the horse of the Moorish warrior fell; they then fought on foot; the Christian knight was slightly wounded in the arm; and soon afterward the Moor was severely wounded in the thigh. His life was now at the mercy of the Christian, who generously proposed to terminate the combat, and offered the Moor his friendship; which was accepted with great admiration of his magnanimity, and both chiefs retired from the field.

Such is the substance of a story which, by the aid of long speeches and minute particulars, is spun out through twenty pages. The other narratives embrace a great variety of subjects, but are similar in style and arrangement to the one which we have quoted. We have here no rich imagery, no pathetic description; and the diffuse character of the language makes the work barren even of those incidents which convey an idea of the national manners. The notes, or, as they are termed in the title-page, 'notes historical and literary,' are passages avowedly copied from *Chénier* and other writers. In short, we consider M. SANÉ's translation as a trading speculation, suggested by the momentary interest of Spanish affairs; and we do not judge so meanly of the taste of the French public as to augur it success.

ART. XVIII. *Tableau Historique des Nations*, &c. i. e. An Historical View of all Nations; or a Concatenation of the principal contemporaneous Events on the Surface of the Earth: with a general Sketch of the Progress of Arts Sciences, and Literature, from the *Beginning of the World* to the present Time. By M. E. JONDOT. 4 vols. 8vo. Paris. 1808. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 8s.

THE nature of this production would have been more clearly comprehended by the reader, had it been intitled "An Abridgment of Universal History from the Creation of the World to the present Time, in a series of chapters, each containing the contemporaneous Events in all Countries during the period expressed in its Title." These chapters are called *Synchronisms*, and

and amount in all to the number of eighty-six. The plan of them will be best understood by selecting a particular example. If, for instance, we turn to the beginning of the third volume, we enter on the forty-fifth synchronism, which relates the events of the world from 741 to 775 of the Christian æra. After having given, in the first place, the history of the Greek Empire during this interval, M. JONDOT proceeds to describe the revolutions among the Arabs, the end of the dynasty of Omar, and the removal of the seat of empire from Damascus to Bagdad. He then directs his attention to Europe, where, in Spain, the progress of the elegant arts under the Saracens; in Italy, the overthrow of the kingdom of the Lombards by Charlemagne; in France, the glory of that sovereign; in Germany, intestine commotions; and in England, the progress of the heptarchy towards incorporation into one kingdom; are successively described. A notice is added of those who filled the papal chair, and of the ecclesiastical councils holden during this interval; and the chapter is brought to a close by a few general remarks on the condition of society, and on the most remarkable characters of the age.

Those abridgments of universal history which have been formerly published,—such, for example, as that of *Lenglet Dufresnoy*,—were generally chronological, and, without ascending to the elevated tone of history, professed only to give brief notices of remarkable events. *Bossuet*'s eloquent treatise on Universal History, and the ingenious disquisitions of *Voltaire*, belong to a very different class, and rank among the foremost of literary compositions: but M. JONDOT seems to have thought that the plan of these works was incomplete, and that the field was still open for a chronological history of the world from the earliest times to the memorable æra of *Bonaparte*. He has given his work a mixed character, and has sought to blend the elevation of historical narrative with the precision of chronological distinctions: but his method is liable to several objections; the principal of which is the frequent distraction of the reader's attention to a variety of subjects. In the short chapters into which the writer has divided his book, the reader no sooner becomes interested in one nation, than he is hurried off to another in a very different stage of civilization, and from that other to a third; so that, for the sake of preserving the chain of contemporaneous occurrences unbroken, we are deprived of that fund of instruction which arises from the progressive influence of events in the formation of national character. This objection might have been lessened by lengthening the chapters, or rather by dividing the narrative into as many books as we have remarkable epochs in history: but the desire of novelty seems

to have outweighed all other considerations. Such a defect in the plan is the more to be regretted, because M. JONDOT gives evidence of considerable ability in historical composition; and he appears to the most advantage in those passages in which he sums up, at the conclusion of a chapter, the general characteristics of a particular æra. We present our readers with his reflections on the Empires of Rome and Constantinople, after the death of Constantine the Great:

'The Roman empire, restored to unity under Constantine, now discovered some signs of energy; the barbarians were defeated in the East and West, and respected the power of this Emperor: but his sons did not inherit his talents; the degeneracy of the idolatrous Romans went on increasing; and the public calamities were renewed. Theodosius the Great accelerated their progress by following the policy of Claudius II. and Dioclesian, in incorporating the barbarians into the Roman legions. This gave the finishing blow to the Empire of the West, and extinguished the antient valour of the Romans. Theodosius, placed in difficult circumstances, had a fair excuse, but Claudius and Dioclesian had none. As soon as the Romans consented to purchase exemption from military service, and to trust strangers with the defence of the state, there was an end of public spirit; government lost its regularity, and the citizens lost their country. It was then that the disciplined barbarians, awakened to a sense of their strength, precipitated themselves on this colossal empire, overthrew it, broke it into pieces, appropriated it to themselves, disputed among each other for its vast ruins, and erected the monarchies of modern Europe.

'Never did an empire, on the brink of destruction, find so many resources which might have accomplished its re-establishment, if a certain fatality, or rather a decree of Heaven, had not decided otherwise. Able Generals appeared, and succeeded each other in crowds: but they were almost all of barbarian origin, and were Romans only in ambition;—such were Stilico the Vandal, Ætius the Mœsian, and Ricimer the Suevian, who were the most famous military characters of this æra. The last would suffer only the shadows of Emperors to exist; yet, notwithstanding this base policy, he became unconsciously the instrument of raising great men to the empire. It was he who, by cutting them off in their career, proved himself the real subverter of the Western Empire.

'Almost all the barbarous nations, who assailed the Roman Empire, began by ravaging both sides of the Danube. According to ordinary calculation, and according to those rules which make us consider Asia as the seat of effeminacy and cowardice, and Europe the seat of courage and discipline, we should be led to expect in the first instance the fall of the Eastern Empire. The contrary, however, was the case. The Western Emperors, devoid of policy, wished to impose on the barbarians by the antient majesty of the Roman name, and irritated them by assassinating their chiefs; while they themselves, a prey to traitors, were only the phantoms of sovereigns. Besides, the ablest Generals, such as those whom we have already named, while they propped the empire with one hand, applied the other to sap its foundations.

'The

'The Eastern Emperors, equally weak but more artful, and, above all, more compliant than their colleagues, were at least sensible of their own inefficiency, and disarmed the Goths and Huns, by submitting to the momentary humiliation of a tribute. Intent on sowing dissension among the barbarians, they diminished by these means their power of doing mischief to other nations; and the whole of their government bore greater indications of secrecy and concert than that of Rome.'

M. JONDOT gives evident marks of his being a Frenchman, both in partiality to his ancestors and in the general style of his composition. Exaggeration is a prominent characteristic of his work, and it is scarcely necessary to add that this is productive of frequent inaccuracies and misrepresentations. His lofty encomium on the *morals* of the Chinese, (vol. i. p. 154.,) and his inference that an adherence to antient usages increases political strength, are striking examples also of his want of judgment. In regard to his credulity, it will be sufficient to state his belief of the vulgar report that Homer was reduced to beg his bread throughout Greece; and that the Phœnicians (vol. i. p. 56.) not only doubled the Cape of Good Hope, but extended their westward voyages to the continent of America. Of his partiality to his ancestors the Gauls, the first instance occurs in the capture of Rome by Brennus, vol. i. p. 231. It will be in the recollection of most of our readers that, after these invaders had destroyed the city, they besieged the capitol, the obstinate defence of which gave time to Camillus to assemble an army, and to overpower them. According to M. JONDOT, however, the 'Gauls withdrew by treaty, and Camillus's victory seems an invention of the Roman historians to disguise the shame of their ancestors.' In the concluding summary of the chapter, he describes the Gauls as 'a people who had come forwards on the stage of history with the greatest *éclat*.' In the age of Alexander, it is amusing to find the author explaining the incursions of these savages (vol. i. p. 268.) into Greece and Asia in such terms as the following: 'The Gauls, warlike and proud, wished also to obtain renown, and to conquer nations *not so good as themselves*.' Ptolemy Ceraunus, having by means of assassination (vol. ii. p. 6.) usurped the throne of Macedon, the Gauls invade his kingdom, 'as if sent from heaven to punish this monster.' When Cæsar had accomplished the conquest of Gaul, M. JONDOT modestly remarks, (vol. ii. p. 98.) 'Never would Gaul have become subject to the Roman empire, had its inhabitants been united: but it was the policy of *Cæsar* to conquer one part of the nation by the arms of another part.' For the Franks, the more immediate predecessors of his present countrymen, the author has

yet

yet higher encomiums in reserve. 'Still braver than the Gauls, their prominent characteristic was impetuosity; they were a nation of hunters.—If a warrior lost an arm in battle, he continued to fight resolutely with the arm that remained.'

As a proper finish to these extravagancies of national conceit, we shall give the author's account of the modern battle of Aboukir. It has been generally thought that the position of the French fleet was very advantageous, and their Admiral wrote that "it was such as to bid defiance to all the navies of the universe:" but M. JONDOT has no hesitation in dissenting from general opinion, and in ascribing to this position the loss of the battle. 'The French fleet,' he says, (vol. iv. p. 490.) 'had gone too far into Aboukir-bay; the English Admiral, Nelson, came up; a furious combat ensued; and the enemy, taking advantage of the wind, as well as of our *bad position*, obtained a great victory.'

We must admit, however, that M. JONDOT's style is always serious, and sufficiently elevated even for the dignity of history. It would be unsuited to familiar illustrations, and accords best with a momentous and impressive subject. His description of the pestilence, which desolated the civilized world in the middle of the fourteenth century, is thus given:

'What a disastrous epoch for humanity was this: no refuge could be found on earth for the inoffensive inhabitants: but war, pestilence, and famine followed each other throughout the world. Swarms of locusts scattered desolation during three successive years, and were in France, as well as in Germany, the forerunners of farther calamities to the people. Repeated earthquakes preceded the pestilence; and the noxious vapours exhaled from these concussions conduced, in the opinion of some persons, to the infection, though the more general belief is that it was brought to Europe by merchant vessels. This terrible scourge traversed the whole civilized world, and swept off in its progress a third of the population both in town and country; brute animals as well as men were attacked by it: great cities resembled sepulchres; and the dead were carried to the grave by the dying. Throughout Asia, the fields remained uncultivated and desert, and famine destroyed those whom the contagion had spared. In the city and neighbourhood of London, the number of victims were reckoned at 50,000; in Florence, 60,000; in Lubeck, 60,000; and in Paris, above 500 dead bodies were daily carried out of the Hôtel Dieu. Venice was almost stript of its inhabitants, and the nobles of the great council were reduced from 1250 to 380. *Andrea Dandolo*, the Doge, attracted new inhabitants by granting them advantageous privileges: but the sick almost all died through neglect.

'A religious terror overcame the minds of men. These scourges were considered as the forerunners of the destruction of the world; and a passage in the Apocalypse, erroneously translated, gave a sanction

sanction to this prejudice. Soldiers exchanged their warlike toils for the care of their souls: the countrymen suspended their agricultural labours: groans and cries of penitence were heard in all directions; and bands of men and women were seen lacerating their bodies with stripes.

'As if the plague had not destroyed a sufficient number of lives, persecution was extended to the Jews. The populace imputed their afflictions to these wanderers, and burnt numbers of them in France, Germany, and Italy.'

This writer is so far from being an admirer of republics, that his tenets seem decidedly monarchical. In one passage, (Vol. ii. p. 64.) he calls the Romans 'artful and deceitful republicans;' in another, (p. 61.) they are 'the oppressors of all nations.' He terms the philosophical writings of *Voltaire*, *Diderot*, and *Rousseau*, 'plots against the throne and the altar;' and he ascribes the origin of the whole to a false admiration of English habits and English liberty.

The French press seems now to be completely under the influence of government, and scarcely a book comes into our hands that is not filled with panegyrics on *Bonaparte*: who, according to M. JONDOT, is 'the restoring spirit who has re-established social order on the ruins of civil war.' The defence of Acre is no more introduced in this history than if it had never taken place. It happens unluckily, however, for the flatterers of *Bonaparte*, that his conduct varies so much at different times, that what is meant for praise in one season may be regarded as sarcasm in another. Having mentioned the harsh treatment of the aged Pius VI. by the Directory, the author exclaims, (Vol. iv. p. 518.) 'the conqueror of Italy was then on the borders of the Nile, and could not protect this victim.'—M. JONDOT might have maintained impartiality, and avoided interference with living characters, by terminating his narrative at the beginning of the French Revolution: an event which forms but too memorable an æra in the history of mankind, and a narrative of which, in the narrow limits prescribed in this work, is necessarily possessed of little interest.

We turn now to some passages of animated description with which the volumes are interspersed. The account of the flourishing state of literature under Louis XIV. is both elegant and instructive:

'The distinctive mark of this age is that every nation in Europe made progress in literature. It was from the convent of Port Royal that the sparks which gave fire to the French nation first emanated. *Blaise Pascal*, by fixing our language in his "Provincial Letters," laid the foundation of the edifice; and polished writers laboured to give from time to time an elegant form and established rules to our language. *Corneille*, by the masculine fire of his genius, revives the most

most famous Romans on the stage, and makes them speak as if he were their interpreter. *Racine*, whose name is identified with perfection —a poet at once tender, sublime, and full of harmony,—transports our passions at the time that he delights our fancy by the correctness and liveliness of his descriptions. Before the age of *Corneille*, comedy was in a rude state: but his *Liar* attracted universal approbation.

'*Moliere* paints the follies of his age in a strain which is superior to Aristophanes, Terence, or Plautus. Wit, humour, and point, season each of his pieces, and make them universally admired.—*La Fontaine* utters the voice of nature herself, and possessed the most original mind perhaps of this surprising age; moral lessons were never delivered with so much grace as by this inimitable poet. *Boileau* teaches the art of making fine verses, and serves as a guide to his contemporaries by giving them excellent specimens in his own. Such an Aristarchus was required for such an age. *Quinault* writes lyrics full of softness, grace, sweetness, and sometimes of sublimity. Mad. *de Sevigné* immortalizes herself in the epistolary style by a liveliness, a grace, and a happy negligence which seem to be the prerogative of women.

'On the one hand, *Fenelon* conveys, in the attractive shape of poetry, lessons of virtue and sound policy to crowned heads; on the other, *Bossuet*, from the height of his evangelic chair, alarms them with the nullity of human greatness. His eloquence is irresistible; he overthrows and crushes impiety whenever it dares to withstand him. Never did the proud and polished court of Louis XIV. hear this powerful apostle but with the closest attention. A profound and sublime historian, *Bossuet*, in his Essay on Universal History, attracted the admiration of every nation except the French, who for a long time under-rated this masterly performance.

'The manly and austere eloquence of *Bourdaloue* despises ornament; but the force of his diction, the solidity and energy of his thoughts, and a knowlege of the human heart, place this Jesuit by the side of *Bossuet* himself. In *Flechier*, art is too apparent:—yet in some of his funeral orations, especially on *Turenne*, he rises above himself, and makes good his claim to permanent fame. *Massillon* closes the list of these sacred orators, and among them all dived deepest into the human heart. His "*Petit Carême*" is perhaps the most finished composition that was ever written.—*La Bruyere* developes, in his "Characters," the inconsistencies and oddities of society; while *La Rochefoucauld*, in his "Maxims," penetrates the springs of our self-love, and the secret motives of our actions.'

On the whole, M. JONDOT's book may be of some use to those who are already acquainted with history, but we cannot recommend it to beginners. The ability of the writer in the execution of it does not counterbalance the defects of his plan. His readers must also be on their guard against typographical errors, which are numerous. Vol. ii. p. 164, Edward III. stands for Edward I.—Page 188, Perses for Parthes.—Vol. iv. p. 513, the year 1793 for the year 1796, &c.

ART.

ART. XIX. *Les Voyageurs en Perse, &c.; i. e.* The Travellers in Persia. By Mad. GACON-DUFOUR. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1809.

NOTWITHSTANDING some palpable absurdities which occur in the narrative, this production possesses considerable merit; and though we apprehend that it is altogether a work of fiction, the author has given such an air of probability to the recitals of her travellers, and has collected so many amusing and interesting documents relative to the country which they explore, that she not only preserves the illusion of their journey, but conveys a portion of general information with regard to the customs and antiquities of Persia.

Whether the maxims which are cited in Vol. III. p. 158. be taken from Persian originals, or have owed their birth to the ingenuity of the present author, we think that their merit will apologize for our inserting a few of them:

'The discourse of the wise may be distinguished from that of the foolish, because the former tends to peace, and the latter to altercation.

'A man deserves to be considered as wise as long as he seeks after wisdom, but when he thinks that he has attained it he is a fool.

'A Sage being asked who had taught him wisdom, he answered, "I learnt it from the Blind, who never set down their feet till they have tried the ground."

'An Arab, who was asked how he knew that there was a God, replied, "In the same manner that I know from the traces in the sand, whether a man or a beast has passed over it."

The story which is interwoven with these Travels has little to recommend it. The episodes are numerous, because every Frenchman in the book chuses on his first introduction to relate the history of his life; and these specimens make us rejoice that this communicative disposition does not extend to the Persians, though in other respects they resemble each other very closely. No difference of national character is perceptible; the *dramatis personæ* are all French; a Persian fair one acts and writes like a French coquette; the modern French terms are deemed so preferable to any other, that the servant of the antient Persian Sage *Lokman* is called his "*valet de chambre*;" and whithersoever the 'Travellers in Persia' direct their steps, they profess to find an affection and respect for the French nation. The ostensible narrator, Mons. *de Longueil*, also displays an excess of complaisance in the disposal of his heart, which is difficult for an English reader to imagine.

Madame GACON-DUFOUR was not long since introduced to our readers, (Vol. 53, p. 542.) as the author of several works on rural and domestic economy, and on preserving the health of country-people; and from the evidence also of the present volumes, we may conclude that she is not merely a good housewife, a *Lady Bountiful*, but that she possesses a cultivated mind.

INDEX

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N. B. *To find any particular* Book, *or* Pamphlet, *see the* Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

ABOUKIR, battle of, misrepresented by a French writer, 541.

Acids, experiments on the decomposition of, 358.

Africa, coast of, lamentable account of shipwrecks on, and of the fate of the crews, 198.

Agriculture, state of, in early times in this country, 60.

Alari, Abbé, a friend and correspondent of Ld. Bolingbroke, ill requited by that nobleman, 456. His interview with Newton, 458.

Alcuin, an accomplished British monk of the eighth century, his classic taste asserted, 184. His favour with Charlemagne, 185.

Alkalies. See *Davy*.

Amiable, the English epithet, and *aimable*, the French, material difference in the application of those terms, 488.

Animalcules, in fluids, remarks on, 120.

Apophthegms, said to be Persian, specimen of, 544.

Apples, new sorts of, account of, 271, 273, 274.

Arabic, peculiar difficulties of that language, 197.

Arches, invention of, observations on, 265, 266.

Architecture, ecclesiastical. See *Churches*.

Argonautica, of C. Valerius Flaccus, remarks on, 38.

Argyle, Earl of, Mr. Fox's observations on his fate supposed to be influenced by ideas of the possibility of his being placed in similar circumstances, 232.

Arrests for debt, regulations relative to, 28.

Arteries. See *Young*.

Atlas mountains, in Barbary, account of, 189.

B

Banks, Sir Joseph, on the introduction of the potatoe, and on Indian hill-wheat, 268. On inuring tender plants to our climate, 269. On managing strawberries, 271. On the cranberry, 272. On the Spanish chesnut, 274. On the forcing-houses of the Romans, *ib.*

Barthélémy, St. or Kœnigssée, description of that lake, 480.

Baths, warm, antient and modern, observations on, 281—283, 431.

Bell, Dr., comparison of his scheme of education with that of Mr. Lancaster, 333.

Biggs, Mr., on some new apples, 271.

Black, Dr, his labours not sufficiently appreciated by French physiologists, 525.

Blair, Dr., his illiberal reflections on Reviews, 393. *note.*

Blood, circulation of, in insects, observations on, 117.

Boa Constrictor, account of that formidable snake, 192.

Bolingbroke, Lord, specimens of original letters of, and obs. on his

his writings and character, 450—465.
Brain, dropsy of, account of that disease, 132.
Brocoli, early purple, on the culture of, 273.
Brodie, Mr., on a human fœtus without a heart, 360.
Bruce, Mr., the Abyssinian traveller, biographical account of, 386. Prof. Hartmann's character of, 391.
Buenos Ayres, statistical and descriptive particulars of, 87—93.
Bulls. See *Pardons*.
Buonaparte, his plan for cutting off the army of Sir John Moore, 80, 81.
Burns, the poet, farther particulars of, and of his writings, 400—409.

C

Capillary-action, additional observations on, by M. La Place, 527.
Caravans, African, description of, and of the entire destruction of one by thirst in 1805, 200.
Carshalton-church, account of, 110.
Castlereagh, Lord, letters to, from Sir John Moore, 72, 75, 78. 83, 84.
Cavalry, British, important remarks on their dress, 317.
Celts, and Goths, considerations respecting, 172, 173.
Chance, and Chances, remarks on the doctrine of, 420, 421.
Charlemagne, his patronage of Alcuin, and his great zeal for the promotion of learning, 185. Humorous anecdote of, 186. His expedition into Spain made the subject of a poem on *Spanish Heroism*, 236.
Chesnut, Spanish, on the management of, 274.
Children, Mr. on a Voltaic apparatus, 356.
Christ, comparison of, with Moses, 378.
Christianity, arguments in proof of the truth of, 176.
Churches, and religious structures, among the Saxons, observations on, 258, *& seq.*
Churchill, *bon-mot* of, respecting Warburton, 11.
Clergyman, important qualifications for the office of, 283, 284.
Climate See *Plants*.
Constantinople. See *Rome*
Conversion, doctrine of, Dr. Paley's remarks on, 57.
Copenhagen, attack of, by Lord Nelson, poetically described, 213.
Corn-laws, historical particulars of, 60—64.
Cotton-plant, account of experiments to introduce the culture of, in France, 495.
Cranberry, American, successfully cultivated by Sir Jos. Banks, 272.
Creditor. See *Debtor*.
Crocuses, on the culture of, 274.
Crusades to the Holy Land, interesting view of their beneficial influence on European civilization, 466—473.
Cuttle-fish, eight armed, remarks on, 118.
Cuvier, M., his oration on the progress of physical science, 523.

D

Dahlia, observations on that beautiful shrub, 272, 273.
D'Alembert, letter to, from Montesquieu, 491. His singular connection with Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse, curiously illustrated by the discovery of his relationship to her, 492.
Davy, Mr, on the analysis of alkalies, phosphorus, &c. 356.
D'Aydie, Chevalier, portrait of, by Madame du Deffand, 490.
Debtor and *Creditor*, rem. on the laws relative to, 204, 205.

Deffand, Marquise du, her character, and specimens of her correspondence, 487—492.
Defoe, Daniel, said not to have been the author of Robinson Crusoe, 220.
Delambre, M. his oration on the progress of science, 522.
Dickson, Mr., on the *Brassica Napus*, 270.
Downton-Pippin, account of, 274.
Dragoons. See *Cavalry*
Dropsy of the brain. See *Brain*.
Dunlar, Mr. on the culture of flax, 271.

E

Earthquake in St. Domingo, described, 533.
Edinburgh, very favourably described, 14. Customs of the students at the university, 16
Education, historical account of the different systems of, in Germany, 515—521.
Elective Attractions, table of, 359.
Eloquence See *Oratory*.
Emigrants, French, their absurd conduct, 162, 167.
England, King of. See *George* III.
Espinasse, Mlle. de l', discarded by Madame du Deffand, associates with D'Alembert, 492. Curious account of her relationship to him, *ib* Her amorous character, 493. Droll mixture of her love-complaints and pains in her bowels, 494.

F

Faculties, human, the excellence of, displayed, 129.
Fas, or Fez, account of that City, 193.
Fish, in ponds, a material article in Sussex, 145.
Flax, cultivation of, in flower-gardens recommended, 271.
Fleece, golden, see *Argonautica*.
Fœtus, human, without a heart, account of, 360.
Forcing-Houses, observations on, 272. Account of those of the Romans, 274. Observations on the form of, 276.
Forms, religious, remarks on, by Dr. Paley, 56.
Fox, Charles James, biographical particulars of, 42—52. Testimonies to his character from different sources, 226—233. Observations on his *History*, by Dr. Parr, 231, 232.
Frere, Mr. his communications with Sir John Moore, 74—78.
Friendship, Roman, recipe for making, 295.
Fruits, new and early, observations on producing, 270. Cultivated by the Romans, 275.
Fruit-trees, on training, 272.

G

Galvanic apparatus, on the construction of, 356.
Gauls, extravagant encomiums on, by a modern Frenchman, 540.
George III. King of England, curious account of the Duke de Nivernois' audience of, in 1762, 513.
Gesture, in oratory. See *Oratory*.
Goths, see *Celts*.
Grafting walnuts and other trees, advantages of, 271.
Granger, Mr., his letters to Horace Walpole, 292, 293. Miscellaneous observations by, 294. His Biographical History continued, 297.
Grapes, forcing-house for, 272. On the early maturation of, 273.
Greasing sheep, recommended as a preservative of wool 383.
Greek, modern, peculiarities of, compared with the antient language, 99.
Gustavus III. King of Sweden, supposed particulars of his

alienation from and reconciliation with his Queen, 218.
Gustavus IV. anecdote of, 219.

H

Hamilton, Lady, the frequent model of Romney the painter, 342.
———, *Mr. Gerard*, some particulars of his life, 346. *et seq.*
Haworth, Mr. on the cultivation of crocuses, 274.
Heart, on the functions of the, 352.
———, account of a human fœtus without that organ, 360.
Hénault, President, letter to, from Montesquieu, 491.
Henry, Philip, anecdotes of, 300.
Hervilly, Comte de, his appointment as second in command in the Quiberon expedition said to have been fatal to it, 161.
Hicks, Dr. account of, 299.
Hill-wheat, from India, account of, 269.
History, letters on, by Lord Bolingbroke, germ of that work in one of Lord B.'s letters, 455.
Holland, first Lord, character of, 44.
Holt, Sir John, biographical particulars of, 301.
Home, Mr. on the intervertebral substance in fish, 362.
Horne, Bishop, anecdotes and *sayings* collected by him, 442.
Horticulture, the improvement of, made the object of a society of Gentlemen, who are incorporated by royal charter, 266. Account of their Transactions, ib.—276,
Hot-bed frames, on the construction of, 274.
Hot-houses. See *Forcing Houses*.
Hume, Mr. corrected in his ideas respecting chance, 420. Supposed by a French writer to have discontinued his history through compulsion, and Smollet's continuation to have been mutilated, 459.
Hurd, Bishop, particulars of his friendship with Warburton, and obligations to him, 1.—11
Hyæna, anecdotes relative to that animal, 189.

I and J

Insanity, remarks on the definition of, 276. Causes of, 279. Management of, 280.
Insects, circulation of the blood in, remarks on, 117.
Instruments, astronomical, &c. on dividing them, 363.
Interest. See *Money*.
Intervertebral substance, in fish, &c. on the nature of, 362.
Iron and *Steel*, account of the processes employed in the manufacture of, 149—155.
Juries, Special, remarks on, 22.

K

Kesteloot, Dr. publishes and adds notes to the Orations of the French *savans* on the progress of science, 522.
Knight, Mr. A. his general obs. on Horticulture, 267. On producing new and early fruits, 270. On varieties of the Potatoe, 271. On grafting Walnut and other trees, *ib.* On training fruit-trees, 272. On forcing-houses, *ib.* On hot-bed frames, 274. On the Downton pippin, *ib.* On the onion, 275. On the Alpine strawberry, 276. On the peach, *ib.* On the origin of roots, 361.

L

Lancaster, Mr., his scheme of Education compared with that of Dr. Bell, 333. Patronized by the King, 334 *note*.
Langton, Walter de, Bishop of Lichfield in 1296, account of, 426.
Language, of the New Testament, important remarks on, 286, 287.

Lichfield, ecclesiastical history of, 424.
Literature under Louis XIV. view of its flourishing state, 542.
Lithotomy, observations on the operation of, 207, 208.
Liver, diseases of, remarks on, 209, 210.
Loch-ness, description of, 19.
Locusts, in Barbary, terrific account of, 191.
Love-song, rapturous, by Burns, 408.
Louis XIV. reign of, view of the flourishing state of literature in, 542.
—— XVIII. and the French princes, impolitic conduct of, 167.
Lucretius, specimen of a good translation of, in rhyme, 415.

M

Macbeth, historical particulars of, 182.
Madness, religious, curious statement relative to, 280. See *Insanity*.
Maher, Mr. on the culture of sea-kale, 269. On the early purple-brocoli, 273.
Malays, successfully trained as soldiers at St. Helena, 33.
Malta, particulars of the history of, and its connection with England, 395, &c.
Marocco, empire of, various particulars relative to, 188—203. A letter from the Emperor to the British King long unanswered, because it could not be translated, 198.
Mathematicians supposed not to be good logicians, 418
Maxims, said to be Persian, specimens of, 544.
Medulla Spinalis of quadrupeds, account of a canal in, 359.
Merchants, young, obs. on the education of, and their progress in the counting-house, 217.
Mercury, course of, recommended to the European who visits the West Indies, as a preventative of the yellow-fever, 206.
Methodists, the treatment of, with levity reprehended by Bp. Paley, 55.
Milton, undervalued by Bp. Warburton, 1. *note*.
Mollusca, marine, a new genus of, described, 118.
Money, origin of the invention of, 504. Question of the legality and rate of interest on, discussed, 505.
Montesquieu, President, two original letters of, 491. His celebrated work protected by the Duke de Nivernois, 511.
Monte Video, account of, 92.
Monument of London, remarks on, 263. *note*.
Moore, Sir John, eulogy on by the Commander in chief, 70. Particulars of his campaign in Spain, from his own journal, 72-84. Obs. on his character, 315. Curious anecdote rel. to, 318. Obs. on his conduct, *pro & con*. 327—329
Moors of Barbary, domestic manners of, 196.
—— of Grenada, historical particulars and character of, 535, 536.
Morocco. See *Marocco*.
Muses, comparison of, with Christ, 378.

N

Napoleon, Emperor, *be-praised* by the French *literati*, 521, 522.
Nectarines & Peaches growing together, account of, 173.
Newgate, its bad accommodations for prisoners, 26.
New Testament, obs. on the dialects occurring in, 286.
Newton, Sir Isaac, interview of the Abbé Alari with him, 458.
Niemeyer, Dr., his work on education praised, 518.
Nivernois, Duke de, his amiable character

character, 508, 509. Specimens of his poetry, 509, 510, Protects Montesquieu's famous work, 511. Particulars of his embassy in England. 512. His interview with the King, 513.
Nomenclature, pharmaceutical, obs. on reforms of, 304.

O

Ogilvie, Dr., anecdote of, 18.
Omnipresence of God, beautifully illustrated. 127.
Onion, Spanish, on the management of, 275.
Onomatopœa, or process of forming words imitative of the things which they express, account of a dictionary of such words. 484.
Opium, cultivated by Lord Egremont for medical purposes, 143.
Oratory, remarks on the characteristics of British and French public speaking, 243—245.
Orbit of a revolving body disturbed by other bodies, on the mode of determining its position, 529.
Orders in council, speech on, 440.
Ossian, opinion of Dr. Warburton relative to, 7.
Ox, of the Sussex breed, described, 144. Important remark on working oxen, 145.
Oxford, Earl of, said to have been the real writer of Robinson Crusoe, 220.
——, ——, arguments relative to his supposed treachery towards Queen Anne, 460-462.

P

Pardons from the court of Rome, sold in *reams*, 379. *note*.
Parliament, extraordinary instructions for oratory in, 347.
Parson. See *Clergyman*.
Peaches and nectarine growing on one branch, instances of, 273. On varieties of, 276.
Perth, description of, 16.
Pestilence of the 14th century, melancholy picture of, 541.
Pharmacopœia, remarks on alterations made in the last Edinburgh edition of, 304.
Phthisis, mode of treating that disease by a physician of Wilna, 502.
Picts, supposed to be Caledonians, 175. Farther remarks on, 176, 177. 181.
Pillar-towers, description of those antient buildings, 262.
Pinkerton, Mr., his inquiry into the history of Scotland characterized by Mr. Chalmers, 179.
Plants, tender, hints on inuring them to our climate, 269.
Plate, river, account of, 88.
Pond-fish. See *Fish*.
Poor, interesting view of their earnings, and their expenditure, 146.
——, of Scotland and of Ireland, comparison between, 18.
Poor-rates, in Sussex, and generally, serious increase of, 141.
Population of the empire of Marocco, 192.
Portuguese, their national character unfavourably represented, 313, 314.
Potassium and *Ammoniac*, experiments on, 356.
Potatoe, obs. on the introduction of, into England, 268. On varieties of, 271.
Powell, Sir John, anecdotes of, 302.
Price, Dr., remarks on his doctrine of annuities, 410.
Prisoners, strictures on the detention of, after a grand Jury has thrown out the bill of indictment, 24.
Prisons of London, observations on, 26.
Procession, religious, in Spain, involuntarily participated by a British officer, 310.
Prodigal Son, parable of, well illustrated, 124.

Punishments, legal, and capital, excellent obs. on by Dr. Parr, 230.

R

Rape, or *Brassica napus*, a variety of, much recommended, 270.
Readings, various, of the Scriptures, obs. on, 289.
Religious madness, curious statement respecting, 280.
Repentance, excellent obs. on, 124.
Revolutions, in states, view of their influence on liberty, commerce, and civilization, 475—477.
Rhubarb, cultivated by Ld. Egremont, for medical uses, 143.
Robinson Crusoe, adventures of, said to have been written by Lord Oxford, 220.
Romans, forcing-houses of, obs. on, 274.
Rome, court of, and papal church, corruptions of, 379. Curious anecdote of the sale of pardons, *ib. note.*
Rome and Constantinople, reflections on the empires of, after the death of Constantine the Great, 539.
Romney, George, particulars of his life, 338—345.
Ronsard, the old French poet, his poetic address to the Lark, 486.
Roots, on the origin of, 361.
Rousseau, remarks on, by Dr. Warburton, 9.

S

Sailor, old, poetically described as watching his former ship coming to Deptford to be broken up, 36.
Saint Domingo, description of an earthquake in, 532. Fertility of that island, 533.
Saint-Helena, statistical and descriptive particulars of, 29—33.
Salisbury, Mr., on the Tuberose, 270. On the Dahlia, 272. On nectarines and peaches produced on the same branch, 273.
Salt-mines of the Tyrol, description of, 479.
Saxons, obs. on the state of architecture among, 259, &c.
Scepticism, scientific, poetically described, 103.
Schism, view of arguments against, 371.
Scotland, migrations *to*, *from* England, in an important degree, about the twelfth century, 182, 183.
Scott, Dr. John, account of, 298.
Scott, Mr. Walter, observations on his poetical compositions, 234, 235.
Scriptures, study of, many and great requisites for, 284. 290. Various readings of, 289.
Sea-Kale, on the culture of, 269.
Seriousness in religious matters recommended by Archdeacon Paley, 54.
Sewell, Mr., on the *Medulla Spinalis* of quadrupeds, 359.
Sheep, the greasing of, recommended for their wool, and the necessity of sheltering them, 384.
Ship, coming to Deptford to be broken-up, poetically described, 36.
Simpson, Mr. on the Burr-knot apple, 273.
Slaves, traffic in, from the interior of Africa to Marocco, and treatment of, 201.
Snake. See *Boa*.
Somerville, Lord, his remarks on wool, 382.
Sonnet, pleasing, on retrospection, 436.
Spain, account of the English campaign in, under Sir John Moore, and of the inadequacy of the Spanish Patriots to support their cause, 72—84. Farther observations, 315. 327—329.
Spaniards of St. Domingo, their idleness and consequent poverty, 533.

Spunging-

Spunging-Houses, regulations of, 28.
Steel. See *Iron*.
Stone. See *Lithotomy*.
Strawberries, on the management of, 271. Improved culture of the Alpine species, 276.
Stylites. See *Symeon*.
Sugar, experiments on the application of, as food for cattle, 223.
Sulphur, experiments on the analysis of, 357.
Sussex, agricultural particulars of that county, 138—147.
Sweden. See *Gustavus*.
Swift, Dean, accused of Deism, and defended, 464.
Symeon Stylites, observations on his extraordinary mode of life, 264.
Synchronisms, or chronological arrangement of events in all ages and nations, 537.

T

Thurlow, Lord, anecdotes of, as a lover of the arts, 341.
Troughton, Mr., on dividing instruments, 363.
Tuberose, on the culture of, 270.
Typhus, mode of treating that fever by a Physician of Wilna, 499.
Tyrol, interesting and sublime scenery of that country, 478. Account of its salt-mines, 479. Of the lake Kœnigssée, 480.

V and U

Vines, method of stopping their bleeding, when pruned, 273.
Voltaic apparatus, on the construction of, 356.
Voltaire, his intention of dedicating his Henriade to Lord Bolingbroke, 453.
Utrecht, peace of, particulars connected with that event, 460.

W

Walpole, Mr. letters to, from Mr. Granger, 252.
Warburton, Bp, traits of his character, and of his friendship for Bp. Hurd, 1—11. Observations on his *Divine Legation*, 104.
Watery grave, new species of, described by a French female wit, 490.
Wedgwood, Mr., on the culture of the Dahlia, 273.
West, James, biographical account of, 294.
Whale, particulars of its natural history, 115.
Wheat. See *Hi.l-Wheat*.
Wilkinson, Mr., on the form of Hot-houses, 276.
Williams, Mr., on the maturation of grapes, 273.
Wilna, account of its hospital, climate, diseases, &c. 498, 499.
Wool, observations on the growth and improvement of, 381—384.

Y

Yeast, substitute for, in making bread, 143.
Yellow-fever, new mode of preventing its ravages, 206.
Young, Dr. on the functions of the heart and arteries, 352. On Elective Attractions, 359.

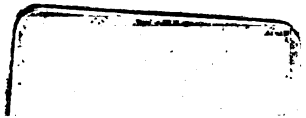
Z

Zizania aquatica, successfully cultivated by Sir Joseph Banks, 269.
Zoology, the study of, recommended, 113.

END OF VOL. LX. OF THE NEW SERIES.

Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY
REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

This book is under no circumstances to be taken from the Building

form 410